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# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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### THE TEACHER'S OUTFIT IN GERMAN

The most important item in the outfit of a teacher is, unquestionably, a good knowledge of the subject to be taught. Knowledge usually begets enthusiasm and these two can always be left with safety in charge of the class room. They will find out what the best tools are and how to use them, though the process of finding out may involve some waste of time. It is chiefly to avoid this waste that the well-prepared teacher has need of suggestions with respect to his outfit.

Shall I then, in this discussion, address myself exclusively to the well-prepared teacher of German and endeavor to say what I think would be most useful to *him*? That would be the pleasant and the urbane thing to do, but I am persuaded that a somewhat different course will meet more fully the practical needs of the hour.

For the great dominating fact in the situation at the present time is that the vast majority of teachers in the secondary schools of the United States are *not* well prepared for their work and are compelled to lean altogether too heavily upon the maxim *docendo discimus*. They are persons who have taken the regular course, or a part of it, in some high school or college. This means that they have studied the rudiments of dogmatic grammar and written the prescribed number of mechanical exercises; have translated certain selections from a reader, perhaps a few short stories, historical sketches, light comedies, and the like, and have then finished off with the reading of three or four classical dramas. On this capital they have gone out to teach German. Their pronunciation is the more or less slovenly *Schulaussprache* they have picked up on the route and they have not the knowledge of phonetics which would enable them to become intelligent critics

of their own and their pupils' utterance. They cannot speak the language even a little and do not understand it when they hear it spoken. They have no trustworthy feeling for its every-day proprieties, to say nothing of its idiomatic niceties. The writing of an ordinary German letter, the translation into good German of a simple passage of English prose would take them beyond their depth. Their grammatical drill is mechanical and uninspiring because they have no knowledge of the historical developments underlying the facts of usage with which they have to deal. They are without the philological training which would enable them to illuminate the pathway of their pupils with helpful comparisons. And when it comes to the still harder task of teaching literature, they are at a great disadvantage from lack of literary horizon. For what gives to literature its highest interest and its supreme educational value, is its import as a transcript of life. But a feeling for this import comes only with extensive reading in the literature itself.

I am fully aware that we have, in our better schools, a considerable number of teachers to whom this description does not apply; but they are after all few in comparison with the great army of those, to whom, *mutatis mutandis*, it does apply. The situation is much the same for other subjects and it all grows out of our peculiar educational traditions and arrangements which, of course, cannot be changed in a day. This fact, however, only emphasizes the need of the hearty coöperation among teachers for the advancement of professional standards, not in German only, but all along the line. What the mass of our secondary teachers need most is more knowledge of the subjects they teach. I have referred to the state of affairs as it affects German simply to account for the character of this article. For I propose to address myself not to the thoroughly prepared teacher who would be most benefited by somewhat elaborate critical bibliographies of the latest and best works relating to the German language and literature, but rather to the average teacher who is more or less imperfectly prepared. I am going to assume that this average teacher is in some measure conscious of his limitations and anxious to improve himself; and that if he does me the honor to read this article it will be for the purpose of finding out what, in my opinion, he ought to know and why he ought to know it, and

how he can best go to work to meet the demands made upon him. And since the discussion of these matters will require all the space at my disposal, I shall not go very deeply or critically into bibliography, but merely mention under each head a few of the most serviceable works, the names and merits of which will no doubt be familiar to many of my readers. Fuller book-lists with more of comment and criticism for the purposes of the advanced scholar, can be given, if the need should be felt, on some future occasion.

What then does the teacher of German in a good high school need to know and to do, or to have done, in order to be well fitted for his work? Remembering duly that a university specialist will very likely be in danger of putting the standard too high, and making every effort to avoid any unnecessary or Utopian demands, I should answer the question in a general way as follows: Our teacher should have a good command of the language of to-day for the purposes of speaking, reading, and writing; should know something of general phonetics, of historical German grammar, and of the important methodological discussions of recent years with respect to the teaching of modern languages; should have read at least the important works and the lives of the great classical writers and have done some systematic study in the critical and interpretative history of German literature.

To begin with, then, our teacher needs to be able to speak German easily and correctly. In saying this I do not mean to take sides unreservedly with those who contend that he always *should* speak German in the class room. That is a matter which may be left to depend upon circumstances and should be decided after an intelligent survey of the conditions. Under favorable conditions, that is when the class is very small, affording thus abundant opportunity for individual practice in talking, when the pupils are all eager to learn, look upon the lesson as an opportunity and are ready to meet the teacher's efforts half way, that is no doubt the best method. On the other hand with large classes that realize these conditions but imperfectly most teachers will prefer to make a free use of the vernacular. But in any case the teacher should use German more or less in his teaching and should wish to use it more rather than less. To treat it as if it were a mere book-cipher, there only to be translated, to ignore it as a

living vehicle of expression, is certainly not the way to teach German. But the teacher who does not speak the language is almost compelled to do this; he has no choice but to make the lesson consist almost entirely of translation.

I would not seem to undervalue translation. It is an indispensable help and that is an ill-judged reform which proposes to do away with it altogether. But after all it is a means not an end, and the end is German, not English. We want our pupils to learn to feel at home in the foreign tongue; to have an immediate, and not simply a mediate, understanding of it, and along with that a sensitive *feeling* for its proprieties of expression. But this is not to be got from translation alone (though that may help), nor from the study of formal grammar, nor from the writing of Ollendorffian exercises. The pupil needs to hear the language as much as possible, to try his tongue upon it, to have his mistakes corrected over and over, and to compare his modes of expression with his teacher's, until knowledge becomes habit.

Moreover, even if the teacher rejects this reasoning of mine and deems it better, on grounds which seem to him valid, to use English and nothing but English in the class room, he should still be able to speak German for the sense of mastery it gives him. A language is primarily a tool—a means of communication; secondarily it is an object of scientific study for its own sake, and in the third place it is a means of culture through the literature that it holds embalmed. A teacher of it should be able to deal with it in all three of these aspects. One can teach the *Anabasis* acceptably, perhaps, and be at ease in his mind though unable to speak ancient Greek, because no countryman of Xenophon is likely to come along and make unpleasant remarks. With German it is different. One who essays to teach in the schools a language which is used by myriads of his own fellow-citizens as their ordinary means of communication cannot afford to be vulnerable. He should be master of the situation. He should be in a position to choose freely between methods, or to adapt and combine methods, according to his own rational convictions. If he knows the language and bethinks him how he learned it, he will be able to teach it (if he can teach anything), and can watch with calmness from his safe citadel the moving procession of the method-mongers.



"The ability to speak German" is of course a phrase of variable import, ranging from the mastery of a few commonplaces of daily intercourse up to the perfect command of the language for all possible occasions. This last degree of aptitude comes only with long residence abroad and not always even with that. To insist upon it peremptorily would be going too far. It would be to disqualify all but a select few even of the very best American teachers and to put a premium upon teachers of foreign birth; whereas experience shows that the best teacher of a foreign language is a person of the same nationality as his pupils who thoroughly knows the language to be taught; or at any rate a person who has grown to maturity in the land of his pupils and has become intimately familiar not only with their language but with their point of view, their mental habits, and their needs. But while there is no need whatever of insisting that every teacher of German shall be able to speak German as if it were his mother-tongue, it is quite in order to urge the importance of residence abroad as a part of the teacher's preparation. Really there is nothing that can take the place of it. Summer schools cannot do it, nor private lessons, nor manuals of conversation, nor board and lodging with a German family. What is needed is the foreign environment, the foreign life, of which the language is the product and its literature the expression. I wish to urge with great emphasis, therefore, that every one who wishes to fit himself properly for the teaching of German should include in his plans a residence of at least a year in Germany. The time is surely coming when this will be generally treated by school authorities as an indispensable condition. Indeed it is so treated even now in the best schools.

But it will be said that residence abroad costs money and is, on other grounds, not every one's affair. The question is, then, What is the next best thing? How can one who is actually at work teaching, and needs to keep at work, best improve his practical command of the language? Beyond question the next best expedient is frequent and long-continued association with a German friend who speaks his language perfectly and can be induced for love, or money, or exchange of English for German, to take up the cross and devote himself to the incidental teaching of his mother-tongue. I say "incidental" because I have in mind now

the needs of persons who already possess considerable book knowledge of the language and do not require formal lessons, but simply practice for ear and tongue; who need only to talk and to hear talk on all sorts of subjects as they arise. The instruction of such persons will be most efficient in proportion as it is got incidentally and is "free from the taint of professionalism," as our college athletes say. It can be given best in an evening call, a visit to the theatre, a walk through the fields, a row upon the river. The "teacher", if he knows his business, will simply rattle on in a perfectly natural way without condescending to his pupil's level and with no great solicitude about being fully understood. He will of course ask questions and try to draw his pupil out and will then quietly correct mistakes by saying the same thing over presently in the right way. And the "pupil" on his part, must forget, so far as possible, his English and his science and put himself in the attitude of a child; he must *hear* what is said to him and imitate what he hears without risking any Icarus-flights of his own. If he does not understand he should, ordinarily, let it go; he will understand the next time, or the third, or the fifth. Linguistic explanations which continually remind one's interlocutor of one's ignorance are a great damper upon the easy flow of talk.

Anyone who is lucky enough to secure a right good teacher of this unprofessional kind will make better progress than the most of those who go abroad and there devote themselves to book-study, to lectures, or to formal language-lessons. The success of this method depends largely, of course, upon the character of the teacher: he needs to be companionable and talkative and not too far removed in age or interest from his pupil. A difference of sex is no objection. Above all he (or she) must command the language perfectly. Speaking German "for mutual benefit" with anyone who is himself a learner does not result in mutual benefit, but, usually, in the confirmation of bad habits. Nor is there any profit to be had from talking with Americans (at clubs, conversaziones, or elsewhere) who speak German in a halting unidiomatic way or murder it with sin-laden fluency.

But suppose that the right sort of teacher is not to be had: what is the next best expedient? Is there any form of self-instruction that can be resorted to with profit? One thinks here of

the phrase-books and manuals of conversation. Since talking is an art depending upon practice, it is evidently not to be learned from books. Still a good phrase-book has its uses, since it can give, if not facility of expression, at least a knowledge of colloquial forms, and that is something. The difficulty is that the most of the extant collections are not good because they do not reflect the natural spontaneous language of every-day life. They are in the Ollendorff vein, and hence not available outside of the nursery; or they are designed to meet the needs of the tourist. They generally contain, along with some matter which is good and helpful, a great deal that is stilted, priggish, or otherwise unnatural. It was therefore a happy thought of Prof. Johan Storm, of the university of Christiania, to prepare a phrase-book that should not be open to these objections. His dialogues were prepared first in French, revised by experts to the manner born, then translated into various European languages and again revised by experts with respect to idiomatic naturalness of expression. An English version of this collection is thus far lacking, but the French-German edition\* is, so far as my knowledge goes, the best German phrase-book we have and the only one which can lay claim to real scientific merit.

No phrase-book, however, can be of much use unless the study of it is supplemented by much reading of such literature as reflects the language of common life. Realistic stories of the present time are best for the purpose. An excellent method of self-instruction is to select an extract from such a story, write out a free idiomatic translation of it, put the translation aside for a few weeks until the exact phraseology of the original has been forgotten, and then re-translate into German and compare with the original. Such work, if kept up conscientiously for a long time and with all sorts of authors, will do more for one than a course in German composition under any but a very superior teacher.

The ability to speak a language carries with it, in a general way, the ability to write and to read it. Speaking is much the most difficult attainment of the three. I do not, therefore, need to deal with the subject of miscellaneous reading done merely by way of learning to read without translating, but may come at

\* *Französische Sprechübungen.* Von Johan Storm. Leipzig. 1887.

once to our second requirement, which was, it will be remembered, an elementary knowledge of phonetics.

There is a school of reformers,\* who contend that a course in phonetics should always form the basis of instruction in a living language; that the pupil should first learn the sounds of the language, and then practise for weeks or months in reading phonetically transcribed texts before he is introduced to the ordinary spelling. This, in my opinion, is going to extremes. Such a method, reduced to practice in the schools, would occasion endless confusion, bewilderment, and loss of time, and in the end would give no better results than to begin at once with the usual spelling. The beginner in a language has difficulties enough to meet without our overwhelming him at the threshold with a mass of phonetic technicalities. At the same time he can be taught and should be taught, from the first, how the foreign sounds are made and how they differ from those English sounds with which he will be apt to confound them. To do this the teacher himself needs some knowledge of the physiology of speech. Such knowledge will add zest to his teaching of pronunciation by making it a matter of scientific interest instead of a tedious mechanical drill. Above all it will enable him to ground his pupils upon a more solid foundation than the uncertain imitation of what they think they hear.†

A knowledge of historical German grammar is perhaps the least indispensable of the requirements above laid down. It is a large

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\* See W. Viëtor's now famous pamphlet *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren*, Heilbronn, 1887; also *Die Reform des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts*, von J. Bierbaum, Cassel, 1886; the same writer's *Die analytisch-direkte Methode*, Cassel, 1887; and *Die praktische Spracherlernung*, von Felix Franke, Leipzig, 1890. These pamphlets are mentioned here as stimulating reading and sources of information with respect to an important reform agitation now going on in Germany. I would not be understood as approving all their theories and positions.

† For an easy introduction to phonetics consult the article "Elements of English Pronunciation" by Prof. W. D. Whitney in Vol. 2 of his *Oriental and Linguistic Studies*; then Sweet's *Primer of Phonetics*, London, 1893. For English-German phonetics the best works are Viëtor's *German Pronunciation*, Heilbronn, 1885; and the same author's larger *Elemente der Phonetik*, Heilbronn, 1887; and Grandgent's *German Sounds*, Boston, Ginn & Co., 1892. An excellent new book in German phonetics is Bremer's *Deutsche Phonetik*, Leipzig, 1893. Siever's *Phonetik*, Leipzig, (4th ed.) 1893 is the best book on general phonetics, but is hard reading.

specialty by itself and cannot be carried very far to advantage without some knowledge of Old and Middle High German, Gothic, and Anglo-Saxon. But the teacher who is informed along these lines will find his information relevant in many ways to the work of the class room. It will give added interest to his teaching of dogmatic grammar by enabling him to comprehend and thus to throw light upon many facts and phenomena which would otherwise appear capricious and inexplicable. It will enable him to use his etymological dictionary intelligently and to give needed help upon the formation and meaning of words. It will furnish criteria for judging the conflicting facts of modern usage.\*

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\* Of our school grammars Brandt's (Boston, 1888,) is the only one which professes to deal with the language historically. It contains a large amount of information very concisely stated. A good introduction to the subject is furnished in Behaghel's *Deutsche Sprache*, (Leipzig, 1886,) of which a translation by Trechmann has lately (1891) been published by Macmillan & Co. under the title *A Short Historical Grammar of the German Language*. A larger work (880 pages), designed with direct reference to the needs of school teachers in Germany is Blatz' *Neuhochdeutsche Grammatik mit Berücksichtigung der historischen Entwicklung*, Tauberbischofsheim, 1880. This is, on the whole, the best single work for the teacher's purposes, though it is rather diffuse, and here and there behind the times. It will be superseded, no doubt, by Wilmann's *Deutsche Grammatik* (Gotisch Alt-, Mittel- und Neuhochdeutsch), Strassburg, 1893, of which the first of the four proposed parts has already appeared. An excellent book from which to study the relation between the actual usage of to-day and the dogmas of the grammarians is Andresen's *Sprachgebrauch und Sprachrichtigkeit im Deutschen*, Heilbronn, 1887. A suggestive new book upon syntax is Wunderlich's *Der deutsche Satzbau*, 1893.

I subjoin here a few notes upon dictionaries. The Grimm, dictionary, the great work of German lexicography, of which Vol. I appeared in 1854, is still far from completion. Vol. 12, on the letter V, is now appearing, but several preceding volumes are still incomplete. The twentieth century will be well under way before the end is reached.—Sander's *Woerterbuch der Deutschen Sprache*, Leipzig, 1860-65, with supplemental volume in 1880, is a ponderous work (four 4to vols.) containing endless wealth of citation from modern authors, but hard to work with because of bad typography and inconvenient arrangement.—The most serviceable for ordinary purposes of the all-German dictionaries is the new *Deutsches Woerterbuch* of Heyne, Leipzig, 1889.—It is planned for 3 vols. of about 1,200 pp. each, but can be easily bound in two. Five of the six half-volumes have now appeared. Gives etymologies, development of meaning, and to some extent pronunciation.—Of German-English dictionaries

We come now to the boundless field of literature. No one can read everything in a great national literature the history of which extends over a thousand years. It is necessary to make a selection, to confine one's study within limits and to remain in ignorance of much. What I would especially urge, however, is that every teacher should study *something*—something more, too, than the particular work he is teaching from day to day. He needs for his work the invigoration that comes only from fresh intellectual acquisitions. It is a deadening, if not a deadly, pedagogical sin to teach the same work year after year, in the same way, and never read anything else for the enlargement of one's own horizon. The growing pupil needs a growing teacher. Let the teacher always have, therefore, some serious literary study of his own, some author, or group of authors, or movement, about which he shall aim to inform himself thoroughly. Let him work up the literature of this specialty, collect books and pamphlets, and try to become an authority upon it. I am not now preaching the importance of an ideal devotion to science, though there might be room for a sermon on that subject; I am simply recommending the best of all known prophylactics for the worst of all pedagogical maladies—mental stagnation. It is better than attending teachers' conventions, though those are good—when they *are* good.

The most profitable kind of collateral work for one who is engaged in teaching the classics is study devoted to the lives and works of the great classical writers. The teacher should have at hand a good edition of Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller,\* and should

the best is now the new Flügel, Braunschweig, 1891. The English part in two volumes is much fuller and better than the German-English part in one volume.—A work which no teacher should be without access to is Kluge's *Etymologisches Wörterbuch*, Strassburg, fifth ed., 1893, the best of all etymological dictionaries. The best manual of synonyms is Eberhard's *Synonymisches Wörterbuch*, 14 Aufl. besorgt von O. Lyon. Gives equivalents in English, French, Italian, and Russian.—For a dictionary of foreign terms the best service will be rendered, on the whole, by Heyse's *Fremdwörterbuch*, Hannover, 1879.

\* Among the multitudinous editions of the classical poets the average teacher will be best served, upon the whole, by that belonging to the collection known as "Kürschner's Deutsche National-Litteratur," published by W. Spemann of Stuttgart. It is well printed, and well edited, has good introductions to the separate works and judicious help-notes at

become familiar, at first hand, with their important works. No other knowledge is so helpful to the teacher of literature as that which brings him into full intellectual sympathy with his author, that which feeds and develops the historical imagination, enabling one to make the author's life-journey with him, to participate in his spiritual development, to look out, at any given time, with *his* eyes upon *his* world, and thus to think his thought and feel his feeling over after him.

Finally, the teacher should do some systematic study in the history of German literature as a whole. It is true that such studies, so far as they relate to the earlier periods, are, to the teacher of the classics, less vitally important than the studies just dealt with. But after all, life, which literature reflects, is continuous. The intellectual tradition of a people is a flowing river and not a canal with locks. One cannot know Goethe well without knowing something of the sixteenth, as well as a great deal of the eighteenth century; and when one comes to the later Romantic movement from which our modern realism is a reaction, —to the Romantic movement, with its more or less spurious medievalism, then one needs to know what the actual Middle Age was like. Studies in the history of literature widen one's outlook, correct one's perspective, discipline one's judgment, and give one a deeper sense of what it means to be an " heir of all the ages." And knowledge which cultivates the teacher will tell sooner or

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the foot of the page. The standard critical edition of Goethe is the " Weimar edition," (Hermann Böhlau, Weimar), of which some fifty volumes have appeared. The standard edition of Lessing is the Lachmann-Muncker edition, now issuing from the press of G. J. Göschen, of Stuttgart; that of Schiller, the *historisch kritische Ausgabe* in 17 volumes, edited by Goedeke and published by Cotta, of Stuttgart. The best book upon Goethe thus far is Hermann Grimm's *Vorlesungen über Goethe*, Berlin, 1880, translated by Sarah Holland Adams and published by Little, Brown & Co., of Boston, under the title *Life and Times of Goethe*. The best book upon Lessing is that of Erich Schmidt, Berlin, Weidmann, 1881-92; upon Schiller, that of J. Minor, Berlin, Weidmann, 1879, which is not yet complete. These last are elaborate critical biographies giving the latest results of German science, and not very easy reading. Very good little books for the school library are those published in the " Great Writers " series by Walter Scott, of London.—*Goethe*, by Sime, *Lessing*, by Rolleston, and *Schiller*, by Nevins, each of which contains in an appendix, a very good bibliography of its subject.



later, in all sorts of subtle and unexpected ways, in the work of the school-room. As Emerson puts it: "There is a certain loftiness of thought and power to marshal and adjust particulars, which can only come from an insight of their whole connection."\*

Calvin Thomas

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### AN EXPERIMENT IN SCHEDULE MAKING

The admirable plan outlined by the Committee of Ten and their associates has not yet become a practical, living fact. This consummation may never be reached and certainly cannot be without the generous coöperation of all our leading universities. An account of an early attempt to make a working schedule along the lines laid down by the Committee, may be of interest to the readers of the SCHOOL REVIEW.

At the beginning of the second semester, January 29, 1894, Michigan Military academy adopted as many features of Table IV of the Committee's report as were practicable without interfering with the college preparation of the junior and senior classes. The increase in the number of subjects and the decrease in the periods per week in individual studies, at first caused some confusion, but eventually presented no greater objections than are incident to the same system in the universities.

In order to test the capabilities of the students, some were allowed to take twenty 45-minute periods of prepared work per week and none less than fifteen. Of the 37 who began with 20 p., 18 have carried the work successfully. The average number of periods at first was 17 1-2 and is now reduced to 16 1-2. During this experiment students have been allowed to drop studies when,

\* The most brilliant book upon the history of German literature is Scherer's *Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur*, Berlin, 1883, translated by Mrs. Conybeare and published in two volumes by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. A more serviceable work for the early stages of one's study is Königs *Deutsche Litteraturgeschichte*, Leipzig, 1881, which gives good analyses of the works discussed, covers the whole field down to the present time, and has a large number of helpful illustrations.

in the judgment of the faculty, the work has been too heavy to insure good results. The number of failures in the monthly reports has been 12 per cent. greater than during last term under the old system of 15 to 16 recitations of 55 minutes each. Considering the increased number of subjects, this shows no greater tendency to failure in individual studies. Our experience leads us to conclude that the average student cannot prepare more than sixteen lessons per week and that few should be allowed to attempt more than eighteen. On this basis we have arranged courses, giving every student substantially fifteen prepared lessons, two unprepared and three optional. Perfect regularity was not secured because so many requirements had to be met.

The courses are arranged primarily to prepare for the University of Michigan and Cornell university, but the optional studies are so arranged that it seems possible to give satisfactory preparation for Harvard, Yale, and Chicago. In order to meet the various requirements of these institutions substitutions are necessary. In the classical-course botany and solid geometry required at the University of Michigan must give way to astronomy and Homer at Harvard. At least one modern language must be taught for Chicago, Harvard, and Yale. Homer, physical geography, and physiology are required for Cornell. Many other demands must be met in our programmes. In attacking this difficult problem we are animated by the common desire to make an advance in spite of difficulties and to provide a working schedule for our present needs. All such plans will necessarily contain blemishes and be expensive of time and teaching force as long as the present diversity of requirements for admission to college exists.

Numbers marked (\*) include one period of unprepared work. This is used for sight reading in foreign languages, composition in English, solution of problems and drawing in mathematics, experiments and mathematical work in physics. Students will be excused from studies printed in italics if the work is too heavy and the studies dropped are not required for college preparation.

The general advantages of these courses may be briefly noted. The decision between the classical and Latin scientific courses is postponed until the third year. The objection that some may raise to 10 p. of Greek when Homer is elected in the senior year

is fully met by the favorable results attained in the intensive study of languages at Morgan Park, the official preparatory school of the University of Chicago. In no case do two languages begin the same year. Latin, French and German may be taken four years each, as the German A and French A classes read different

*Year	MODERN LANGUAGES	ENGLISH
I	German C, or French C... 4p	Latin, or German C, or French C.....5 or 4p
	English Literature, Composition..... *3p	English Literature and Composition..... *2p
	Elementary Algebra..... *5p	Elementary Algebra..... *5p
	Greek and Roman History 4p	Greek and Roman History 4p
	Physical Geography..... 3p	Physical Geography..... 3p
II	German B, or French B.. 4p	Latin, or German B, or French B.....*6 or 4p
	French C, or German C.. 4p	Astronomy and Geology... 3p
	Plane Geometry..... 3p	Plane Geometry..... 3p
	Botany..... 3p	Botany..... 3p
	English Literature and Composition..... 3p	English Literature and Composition..... *4p
	Astronomy, or Geology... 3p	French History..... 3p
III	German A, or French A.. 3p	Latin, or German A, or French A.....*5 or 3p
	French B, or German B.. 4p	English History..... 4p
	Rhetoric and English Literature..... 3p	Rhetoric and English Literature..... 3p
	Advanced Algebra and Geometry..... *5p	Advanced Algebra and Geometry..... *5p
	English History..... 2p	Chemistry..... 3p
	Chemistry..... 3p	
IV	French A, or German A.. 3p	Latin, or German A, or French A.....5 or 3p
	English Literature and Grammar..... 4p	English Literature and Grammar..... 4p
	Physics..... *5p	Physics..... *5p
	United States History... 2p	United States History... 2p
	Physiography, or Physiology..... 3p	Trigonometry and College Algebra..... 3p
	German A, or French A. Trigonometry and College Algebra..... 3p	Physiology and Physiography..... 3p
		Latin..... 3p

selections every year. Astronomy, chemistry, and physics come in the order recommended by the conference report, and physiology and physiography are placed in the senior year so as to receive more scientific treatment based on chemistry and physics. Physical geography in the first year is taught as an introduction

to physiography. American history is taught 3 p. per week in the preparatory year (eighth grade) with one period additional devoted to oral instruction in the outlines of ancient history. In the first year of the academy courses, Grecian history and Roman history to the fall of Rome are allowed 4 p. per week, thus en-

Year	CLASSICAL	LATIN-SCIENTIFIC
I	Latin ..... 5p	Latin ..... 5p
	English Literature and Composition ..... *3p	English Literature and Composition ..... *3p
	Elementary Algebra ..... *5p	Elementary Algebra ..... *5p
	Greek and Roman History 4p	Greek and Roman History 4p
	Physical Geography ..... 3p	Physical Geography ..... 3p
II	Latin ..... *6p	Latin ..... *6p
	English Literature and Composition ..... *4p	English Literature and Composition ..... *4p
	Geometry, Plane ..... 3p	Plane Geometry ..... 3p
	Botany ..... 3p	Botany ..... 3p
	German C, or French C.. 4p	German C, or French C.. 4p
III	Latin ..... *5p	Latin ..... *5p
	Greek ..... 5p	German B, or French B.. 4p
	Rhetoric ..... 1p	Rhetoric ..... 1p
	Advanced Algebra and Geometry ..... *5p	Advanced Algebra and Geometry ..... *5p
	German B, or French B.. 4p	English History ..... 2p
	Chemistry ..... 3p	Astronomy or Geology... 3p
IV	Latin ..... 5p	Latin ..... 5p
	Greek ..... *5p	German A, or French A.. 3p
	Grammar and Elementary English ..... 2p	Grammar and Preparatory English ..... 2p
	Physics or Homer ..... *5p	Physics ..... *5p
	German A, or French A.. 3p	United States History... 2p
	Trigonometry and College Algebra ..... 3p	Physiology and Physiography ..... 3p
		Trigonometry and College Algebra ..... 3p

abling the instructor to give a thorough training in ancient geography and develop to some extent the art side of the subject. In the English course, French history carries the student in the second year from the fall of Rome to the present time, following the general movements of mediæval and modern times in Europe.

In the third year English history (Gardiner) is given to all except classical students, with 2 p. additional constitutional history (Amos) in the English course. In the senior year a closer study of American history from 1829 to 1870 (Woodrow Wilson), is given in all courses except the classical. The German plan of studying the history of each country from two points of view at different periods in the course, is followed as far as possible. English work is so arranged as to include in the four years all the books required by the New England colleges. The study of American and English literature, with composition and the elementary parts of rhetoric, during the first two years, enables the student to master the technical parts of rhetoric in 1 p. per week of the third year, gaining practice in composition in the English history class of the same year. In the fourth year technical grammar is reviewed and advanced work is done in English literature. The senior course in law is Robinson's Elementary Law with special reference to Blackstone, a study which has proved valuable as a preparation for law schools and for business life. The unprepared lessons given to the class in elementary algebra are devoted to mathematical drawing with constant use of the metric system in measurement and in computation. All parts of algebra generally included in the elementary requirements for college are taken up topically the first year and reviewed with harder problems the third year. In the second year 3 p. per week are given to plane geometry with all except the hardest problems in Wentworth's geometry. Algebra and geometry are during the third year taught alternate days with one day additional for sight work in geometrical problems. By this method each subject adds interest to the other and the student gradually gains a mastery over the application of algebra to geometry, a mastery which is usually difficult to acquire. The trigonometry and college algebra of the senior year cover the requirements for admission at Cornell and Harvard. Students who do not take this course are given an opportunity to review geometry 1 p. per week in their senior year. With the exception of history, English, and algebra, as above noted, it does not seem advisable to give any study less than 3 p. per week because the lack of continuity seems detrimental to the student. In the science work it seems better to teach astronomy and geology alternate years 3 p. for the whole year and to pursue

the same plan with physiography and physiology. This gives time for a fair introduction to the science studied and assists in meeting the various requirements of the different universities.

Students preparing for the University of Michigan take the classical course to prepare for the A. B. course, Latin scientific course for Ph. B., modern language course for B. S., and English course for E. S. (C. E.) and B. L. In preparing for law schools, students take the English course with Latin, all courses in history and the senior course in law. In all preparation for Cornell, students take physical geography and physiology, omitting botany. For the A. B. course Homer takes the place of physics in the second term of the senior year; for the B. S., B. L., and engineering courses, the modern language and English courses give preparation by making substitutions. Preparation for Harvard may be secured by taking astronomy, Homer, French, and German, and omitting studies not required for admission. The English course may prepare for the Lawrence Scientific school. In preparing for Yale a student would take the classical course with Homer and two years of French or German in place of chemistry, botany, physics and solid geometry. The English course with two and one-half years of Latin and two years of French or German prepares for the Sheffield Scientific school. The requirements for the University of Chicago may be met in the classical course by omitting botany, electing French or German in the second and fourth years and by taking chemistry in the third year with additional laboratory work in place of the first term of physics and electing Homer in place of the second term of physics. Other combinations might easily be made in several instances.

The absolute requirement of certain sciences for admission to the universities seems to be the greatest obstacle in the way of a uniform and economical programme for preparatory schools. Harvard demands astronomy and elementary physics, or forty experiments in physics; Cornell insists on physical geography and physiology; the University of Michigan, with other state universities following her lead, accepts no substitute for botany and elementary physics. The University of Chicago virtually allows a choice between physics, chemistry, and biology, one year with laboratory work being required in the science chosen. If this option were allowed by all the universities for admission in the classical and

Latin scientific courses, with an additional year of science in other courses, the problem of schedule-making would be much simplified. This would enable a school with a good chemical laboratory and poorly equipped biological and physical laboratories to send boys to college well prepared in one science, with consequent benefit to the boys and to the universities. Again, a small school cannot afford special instructors in the three sciences and cannot find one instructor who will teach all the sciences with the best results. The expense of three laboratory outfits is a serious matter in many schools. If particular sciences have been made absolute requirements through the zeal and influence of the heads of strong departments or by friendly "log-rolling" in the university senate, is it not time to look at the question as one of national importance and not as a matter of policy on the part of a single university? With greater freedom in choosing sciences and consequently a simpler schedule, all preparatory schools could send their men to college with better preparation and their graduates would not be restricted to a few universities. Nearly all the schools can present additional work in French and German in the A. B. and Ph. B. courses without trouble or expense.

Should the University of Michigan drop botany from her absolute requirements and allow an option of biology, chemistry, or physics, and Cornell allow substitutes for physical geography and physiology, and Harvard accept geology in place of astronomy, and biology or chemistry in place of physics in her elementary requirements, a simpler, more economical, and more efficient programme might be adopted by all secondary schools preparing for the various universities and scientific schools. The model courses which will prepare best for college and render the secondary schools most efficient, will, like the constitution of the United States, be born of compromises and will be characterized by a "judicious mixture of definiteness of principle with elasticity in details."

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## THE HISTORY OF EARLY EDUCATION

### HELLENIC EDUCATION—*continued*.

#### CHAPTER IV.

##### ATHENIAN AND IONIC-ATTIC EDUCATION.

We turn now to the chief representative of the Greek spirit—the Athenian. All that we have said of the Hellenic mind and of the Hellenic life-ideals in introducing the subject of Hellenic education found its finest and fullest expression in Attica. As in the case of Sparta, we find that to the Athenian as to all true Greeks, the state or city was the object round which gathered all their interests and all their moral sentiment. Nay, we may even say that the city was the object of their worship, for their very gods were gods to them as protectors and lovers of the beautiful abode which their artistic hands had reared. But the Athenian state in the narrow sense of the governing body or executive did not unduly predominate over the lives of the citizen. Their democratic constitution and popular assemblies brought the governing body into perpetual contact with public opinion—variable and fickle, doubtless, but yet full of ever-fresh suggestion. The despotic socialism of Sparta had no place. The State did not impose its abstract conception of life on the citizen; it was rather the citizen in his free activity who voluntarily gave his life to the State. The individual had, it is true, no rights as against the State organism; but it was felt that the State itself gained most by the free development of the individual. (See Pericles' speech.) Accordingly, while up to the 5th century B. C. we might say that even in Athens the morality of the individual was a civic or political morality, the elements of personality and a free ethics existed even before Socrates, and were powerfully expressed in literature.

The Athenian education was in this as in other respects a reflex of the Athenian life.

"It is evident," says Professor Wilkins, "that a national system of education in the strictest sense of the term would have been

wholly foreign to the genius of the Athenian State. To force every citizen from childhood into the same rigid mould, to crush the play of the natural emotions and impulses, and to sacrifice the beauty and joy of the life of the agora, or the country-home, to the claims of military drill, were aims which were happily rendered needless by the position of Attica, as well as distasteful to the Athenian temperament." At the same time the State, while leaving the education of the citizen by the parents free, prescribed certain general rules. All had to be instructed in gymnastic and music. The Court of the Areopagus, moreover, as *censor morum* and guardian of the ancient constitution, exercised supervision and enforced certain laws, as we may learn from Plato and Socrates among others. But the main controlling force seems to have been the force of public opinion.

(1) *Infancy.*

Gentle and kindly as the Athenian care of infants was, yet there is no doubt that they were often taken from unwilling mothers to be exposed: the father, not the State as in Sparta, determined this. But we must note that Sparta exposed none but the physically incapable: the Athenians were more heartless. These exposed infants were sometimes picked up by dwellers outside the walls and kept, or sold, as slaves. Socrates refers to the grief of a mother deprived of her infant for the first time, and Plato, as all know, recommends exposure in his ideal State. Aristotle in his *Politics*, IV, 16, considers it unnecessary to expose children with a view to keep down the numbers of the population because other means, such as abortion, etc., can be resorted to, but he maintains "there should be a law against rearing any cripple."

On the tenth day after birth all the friends of the family assembled and brought presents. The child was named by the father. There had been a previous ceremony of sacrifice and of purification on the seventh day. The infant was carried several times round the burning hearth by the nurse followed by the mother and hence the ceremony was called *Amphidromia* or "running round". There was much eating and drinking and congratulation enlivened by music and dancing. On the fortieth day the mother paid the customary devotions at the temple. The child was then formally registered.

The first care of the infant fell to the mother and the wet-nurse, (*tiththe*) and thereafter the ordinary nurse (*tithene*). In the best period of Athens the mother always nursed her own child. Later, wet-nurses were general. As a rule peasant women or female slaves were chosen for this service, as it was long esteemed dishonouring for free women to engage in such occupations; but the slaves when engaged were treated as free, and as members of the family. But free women from the country and even free Athenian citizens sometimes undertook the duty, especially after the Peloponnesian war when, owing to the death of their husbands, they were reduced to great poverty. The noble and the rich Athenians usually preferred to get their wet-nurses from Laconia, that their children might have healthy and vigorous fostermothers. The cradles consisted of simple trays, or wicker cots, hung like hammocks. When the work of the wet-nurse—it lasted from a year to a year and a half—was ended, she was followed by the ordinary nurse—usually an elderly woman. She gave the child its food, which consisted largely, along with milk, of a kind of broth sweetened with honey. She carried the child out to get the air, and with it accompanied the mother on her visits, and even to feasts.\*

To put the child to sleep, cradle-songs and lullabies were sung. Theocritus has preserved or rather given his own idea of one of these, as sung to the twins Herakles and Iphicles:

Tender she touched their little heads and sang:  
Sleep, baby boys, a sweet and healthful sleep;  
Sleep on my darlings safely through the night,  
Sleep, happy in your baby dreams, and wake  
With joy to greet the morning's dawning light.  
—(*Theoc. Id. 24, 6.*)

To pacify and amuse the children, they used a rattle invented by the Pythagorean Archytas, a vessel of metal or wood with small stones in it. Aristotle condescends to refer to the rattle (*Polit. VIII, 6, 2*): "It is also very necessary that children should have some amusing employment: for which purpose the rattle of

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\* The child was not allowed to be exposed to the influence of the moon; and from the day of its public acknowledgment by the father, it was provided with amulets hung round the neck that it might be protected against magical arts and the evil eye.

Archytas seems well-contrived which they give children to play with to prevent their breaking those things which are about the house, for owing to their youthfulness they cannot sit still."

The nurses had the bad habit of many modern nurses and mothers of frightening children by threatening them with bogies. The tales which the children heard from the lips of these uneducated women constituted their earliest education. Plato, Aristotle, and Chrysippus urged that care should be exercised that the tales of the nurses and pedagogues\* were such as ought to be told to the young.\*

The ball was a universal plaything. As the children grew older there came the hobby-horse, the game with dice (made of the knuckle-bones of animals cut into square pieces) and spinning-tops both in the house and in the open air. Toys and go-carts and "mud-pies" engaged the interest of Athenian children as of the children of all European nations. Then followed at a somewhat more advanced age a game which consisted in throwing slantingly into the water small smooth stones and counted how many leaps they made before sinking, (which we call "skimming" or "ducks and drakes"), blind man's buff, trundling hoops, and all kinds of games with the ball, walking on stilts, leap-frog, kite-flying, see-sawing on logs and swinging, etc., etc. Girls had dolls made of wax or clay and painted. Blind man's buff was played thus: The boy with his eyes bandaged moved about calling out "I will catch a brazen fly." The others answered "You will hunt it, but you won't catch it"—all the while striking him with whips till he managed to catch one of them.

At an early age the children wore shoes. Great attention was paid to their personal appearance generally. Their hair was twisted into artistic curls and drawn together over the forehead with a splendid comb, according to the fancy of mother and nurse. In the case of the girls, a slender make was aimed at by the use of stays, etc.

From all this we see that the early childhood of the Athenian boy and girl was easy and pleasant. The amusements seem to have been substantially the same as those which prevail among

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\* Quintilian says: (I, 1, 16) Chrysippus thinks that no part of a child's life should be exempt from tuition and that even the three years which he allows to the nurses might be turned to good use.

civilized races at this day. The mother's influence practically ceased from the day the boy went to school. The want of education among the Athenian women precluded their exercising much influence over the boys. But during the first seven years the mother and the nurse really laid the foundation of the child's education. Nursery rhymes, traditionary stories in which animals played a part, thereafter the rich legendary, heroic, and mythical lore of the Hellenic races were imparted to the child. A poetic and dramatic cast of mind was thus given, to be nourished in future years by the school teaching and by the public drama and civic festivals.

(2) *Childhood and Boyhood.*

(a) *State Supervision of Schools.*—The play-time ended with the seventh year. Ussing says the age at which the boy was handed over to the slave-pedagogue was determined by the age at which he was able to receive instruction, and consequently might be long before seven. The place of the female attendant was now taken by the *Pædagogus*, who, did not impart instruction, but had only a moral oversight of his young charge both in and out of the house, and whose task, accordingly, it was always to accompany him to the schoolmaster (*Grammatist*) and gymnastic master (*Pædotribe*). For this service they generally employed a slave whom they considered adapted for such work, but still oftener one, whom on account of age and weakness, or some other defect, they could not profitably employ otherwise. Pericles said, when he saw a slave fall from a tree and break his leg, "*Voilà*, he is now a pedagogue!" The necessary consequence of this was that the free-born boy had but small respect for his *Pædagogus*, and often and easily grew unruly in his manners. The pedagogue had charge of the boy at all times. His business was to train him in morality and good manners, and he was granted the power of beating him, if necessary. The rules as to the external bearing of boys in the street and at table were extremely strict in Athens no less than in Sparta. Doubtless the view the pedagogue took of his duties could not always be very lofty. The answer of a pedagogue, who had a high conception of his function and was asked what he did, is worth recording: "My duty is to make the good (beautiful) pleasant to boys."

In what branches of knowledge the father should cause his child to be instructed, stood at his own discretion. By law he was bound only to instruction in gymnastic and music. This is laid down in the laws ascribed to Solon. The first of these laws as quoted by Grasberger (I, 2, 215) is: "Every citizen shall see to it that his son is instructed in gymnastic and music with grammar (*i. e.* literature). Parents who disobey this law are culpable. Only those parents shall be supported (in their old age) by their grown-up sons, who have given them due education."\*

The instruction was not provided by the State: the schools were private undertakings. But they were subjected not only to a certain moral control, but also, as I have already stated, to the general superintendence of the public authorities. Although, in obedience to the general order of the State, all Athenian free citizens sent their children to the day-schools, the length of their stay there must have been determined, as it is among all nations, by the social position of the parents. We do not need elaborate archæological inquiries to convince us of this. For the poorer class a little reading, writing, and arithmetic would suffice. But there can be no doubt that whoever wished to be accounted as truly worthy citizens of Athens, must have passed through a certain gymnastic course under the *Pædotribe* (gymnastic master), in the palaestra, the music course in its narrower sense under the *Kitharist* (teacher of music), and the literary course under the *Grammatist*. But most of the time seems to have been spent in gymnastic and play.

The schools (*Didaskaleia*) were spread over the various "wards" of the city and were to be found in all Greek towns. But it was not unusual to teach schools in the open air in some recess of a street or temple. It is probable that these open air schools were frequented by the poorer classes chiefly. Of the younger Dionysius in Corinth Justin, XXI, 5 says: "*novissime ludî magistrum profectus pueros in trivio docebat.*" Almost universally, however, there were buildings devoted to school purposes. The misfortune that befel the school in the little Bœotian town of Mycalessus related by Thucydides is well-known, VII, 29. The Thracians fell upon a

\* Monsieur Girard thinks this applied only to instruction in some trade. But if Grasberger's quotation is correct the reference was to education, generally.

boys' school which was a large one and slaughtered all the children. In 500 B. C. the school at Chios fell in as Herodotus tells us, and killed 119 out of 120 children. Pausanias tells a story of a Greek who went mad after losing a prize at Olympia, and, returning to his native place, entered a school, and pushing the pillars that sustained the roof, brought it down on the heads of 60 children burying them under the ruins. But even such schools held in buildings did not receive any State-support and were accordingly "adventure schools" supported by fees.

Æschines says that the laws prescribed the school-hours and the size of the school; but he probably only refers to the law prescribing that no school should be open before sunrise or after sunset. The schools of the better class were generally ornamented with statues of the gods, busts of heroes and pictorial illustrations of incidents in Homer. There is a fragment of such a pictorial table in the Capitoline museum at Rome—the *Tabula Iliaca* of Theodorus. On entering, the boy saluted the Master and his schoolfellows. The master sat on a high seat from which he taught; the pupils on benches; but whether the teaching was individual or collective (in classes) does not seem quite clear. The precise extent of the State supervision of schools, to which I have referred above, is also in doubt. The Court of the Areiopagus existing before Solon's time but reconstructed by him on a more popular basis, exercised great powers over all questions of morals and conduct. This power there can be no doubt, I think, they exercised in the ordinary schools as they did in the gymnasia of the ephebi or youths. The mere fact that there was no organized school-system would make them all the more ready to exercise their large and undefined powers. They were "Superintendents of good order and decency" and under cover of this it would be hard to say what they might not do. They were a check on the licence of the Democracy and the extent of their power would depend on the prudence with which they exercised it. This Areopagitic Council was shorn of much of its power in the time of Pericles, but we may suppose there would be little objection to its continued supervision of morals and conduct. Among much that is uncertain we may safely conclude generally that either through the agency of the Sophronists or Strategi the authorities in Athens kept a watchful eye on schools



—especially the gymnastic schools, but without vexatious interference.

(b.) *Primary Instruction and Methods—Literary Education.*

The music curriculum was divided into two courses, one specially literary, and one specially musical.

In the literary course under the *Grammatist* the first elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic were learned.

*Reading.*—In learning to read, children learned synthetically *i. e.* they learned the individual letters first by heart, then their sounds, then as combined into meaningless syllables, and then into words. The analytic method of taking words first and analysing the various sounds in them and teaching these on phonic principles, is held by some to have been practised, but of this there is no sufficient evidence. "We," says Dionysius of Halicarnassus, who died about the beginning of the Christian era, "learn first the names of the letters, then their shape and functions, then the syllables and their properties *i. e.* their accent and correct articulation, then kinds of declensions: lastly, the parts of speech, and the particular mutations connected with each, as inflexion, number, contraction, accents, position in the sentence; then we begin to read and to write, at first in syllables and slowly, but when we have attained the necessary certainty, easily and quickly. *De Compos. Verb. c. 25.*

It is said that the teacher wrote down what was to be learned and the children copied it,—this doubtless before manuscripts were common. But there were in use also plaques of baked earth on which letters and syllables were written or painted.

The chief difficulties to be encountered by the child were the learning of the proper accent as these were not indicated by signs, and the separating of one word from another, as words were in those days written continuously without a break. There was moreover no punctuation. It is possible that, inasmuch as good, nay merely intelligible, reading was in these circumstances possible only when the sense was fully grasped, the want of separation of words and of punctuation may have contributed largely to mental discipline as well as to good elocution. The manuscripts were either folded or rolled.

After the pupil was able to read, beautiful reading was practised—special attention being paid to the length and shortness of

syllables and to the accentuation. Purity of articulation and accent were specially attended to. They were taught the raising and lowering of the voice and to bring out the melody and rhythm of the sentences, and all this with distinct enunciation and expression. Homer served as the usual reading-book; then Hesiod, Theognis, Phocylides and Solon, as well as the fables of Æsop, and generally "poems in which," as Protagoras says in Plato, "were contained many admonitions and illustrations of conduct, also praise and eulogy of distinguished men, that the boys might admiringly imitate them, and strive themselves also to become distinguished." At an early period collections of the most choice specimens of the poetic art (*anthologies*) were used for the purpose of instruction. These poems, especially Homer, Hesiod, and Theognis, served at the same time for drill in language and for recitation, whereby on the one hand the memory was developed and the imagination strengthened, on the other the heroic forms of antiquity and healthy primitive utterances regarding morality and full of homely common sense were deeply engraved on the young mind. The poems were explained to the pupils and questions were asked. Homer was regarded not merely as a poet, but as an inspired moral teacher, and great portions of his poems were learned by heart. The Iliad and the Odyssey were in truth the Bible of the Greeks. There was also much practice of dictation and learning by heart of what was written down from the master's dictation—a practice which continued in all schools and universities till after the invention of printing. In the Greek schools the master recited and the scholar repeated after him until he could say the passage by himself. The scarcity of books had its advantages, as it compelled the masters to resort more than they would otherwise have done, to oral teaching in which mind meets mind without the interposition of the printed page.\*

*Arithmetic.*—In arithmetic only so much was taught (owing, doubtless, to the cumbrous system of notation) as was necessary for the reckonings of the market-place. The Greeks attained great proficiency within these limits. An *abacus* or calculating-board was in use (but not the same as our modern frame) and the fingers were freely used to assist in calculation.

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\* See an interesting passage in Plato's *Phædrus*. Jowett's Plato 1, 614.

*Writing.*—For writing they used in earlier times tablets covered with wax and a stylus or graver one end of the style being flattened for rubbing out what was written. These tablets were often diptychs and triptychs. For the children who could not yet write, lines were drawn and a copy set with the stylus; they imitated the copy, writing on their knees, there being no desks. Some say they began by tracing the letters as lightly written by the master (the master guiding the hand); and this is highly probable. They drew straight lines with a ruler to keep the writing regular. Sometimes they carried the stylus over letters cut in wooden tablets. Plato thought very little of writing and considered that not too much time should be given to it. It was enough to be able to write legibly. When older, the pupils wrote with pen (*calamus*) and ink on papyrus or parchment. Owing to the cost of parchment they practised on the back of leaves already written on one side.

*Drawing.*—Drawing was much insisted on by Aristotle (Polit. VIII, 3). It was not till his time that it began to be taught in the ordinary schools. But in the course of the fourth century B. C. it entered largely, if not always, into the general education according to Grasberger and others. It was first introduced from Sicily. "*Pamphili auctoritate effectum est Sicyone primum, deinde et in tota Græcia, ut pueri ingenui omnes artem graphicen, hoc est picturam in buto, docerentur, retipereturque ars ea in primum gradum liberalium.*" The drawing was on smooth boxwood surfaces—white on a black ground, or red and black on a white ground. The instrument used was a pencil.

*Geometry.*—Highly as both Aristotle and Plato esteemed geometry as a school subject, it would appear that it was not till the later period of Athenian education (end of 5th century B. C.) that it was introduced into the schools.

Geography was sometimes taught and maps began to come into use about the time of Plato.

#### (c) Secondary Education and Methods.

The *Grammatist* was the name of the elementary teacher. Those boys who could afford to continue their education went in Romano-Hellenic times but not during the purely Hellenic period,

to a *Grammaticus*; but it must be understood that the line of demarcation between these teachers was by no means till later times clear. The "secondary" instruction was given by the *Grammatist* until the two functions were differentiated. In Scotland we have had a similar experience.

In what did what we should call the "secondary" education of the young Athenian consist before secondary schools taught by *Grammatici* took definite form and this probably not till about 300 B. C.? It is difficult to say. It was not till about 13 years of age that a boy began to learn to play a musical instrument and this, with the lyric poetry with which music was always associated and the continued reading and recitation of the poetry seems to have constituted the secondary instruction—at least till about 370 B. C. After that date we know that drawing and geometry, and later grammar began to enter into the curriculum of those who continued at school after the primary period. It would be at this time that the differentiation between primary and secondary schools would naturally arise. We shall see the distinction clearly marked, nay emphasized in Rome (which followed Greece in all educational matters) certainly not later than 150 years B. C. In the secondary school of the *Grammaticus* when it was finally recognized, grammar and literary criticism were leading studies and the foundations laid for subsequent instruction in rhetoric and oratory, into which studies the *Grammaticus* frequently carried his pupils.

The youths after leaving the *Grammaticus* went (from about 400 B. C.) to the *Sophists* for teaching of rhetoric, &c. These were the highest instructors.

It is not to be supposed that the system of education above sketched was in any way formally organised. It was a voluntary and natural growth, and underwent all the fluctuations that are inherent in voluntary institutions.

(TO BE CONTINUED.)

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## SUMMER MEETINGS

### REGENTS' CONVOCATION—NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

First of all the charms of the teachers' profession has always been the long vacation. Time was when we all thought it a very excellent thing, but really didn't know what to do with it. Isolated individuals solved the problem each his own way. Some worked in the garden; others went fishing; others still read some of the books they had paid for during the working months of the year. It took two months to learn how to live in vacation, and then vacation was done. Now, however, the problem is solved for us. We are to go to the Regents' Convocation, the State Teachers' Association, the National Educational Association, the American Institute of Instruction, the School of Ethics, the American Philological Society (if we can), the Summer Meeting for University Extension, spend six weeks in any one of twenty good or thirty more pretty good summer schools studying or lecturing, and devote the two or three days that remain to concentrated repose at a rest cure. Only the teacher of great natural obstinacy can now escape this sort of vacation.

#### THE REGENTS' CONVOCATION

This is nearly always good. It has a good reputation and does not live on it. Holding the meeting in the splendid capitol, and in the rich senate chamber of that capitol in itself gives dignity to the gathering. Coming together here, in one compact body, we feel that we are the staple article. Those meetings where a few fragments of us come together at various places unconsciously make us feel like an assortment of job lots. The convocation is not poor in features that touch the imagination. The stately chamber, the always interesting assembly, the procession of Regents at the opening, headed by the gracious chancellor in cap and gown, the charm of a past and a history, these and more are other-worldly, no doubt, but we love them. This year the meeting was peculiarly interesting by reason of the fact that the Constitutional Convention was in session just across the court, in the

Assembly chamber. We went and looked at the convention, and the convention came in and looked at us. Each thought well of the other, and all were edified.

#### WHO WERE THERE

There are a good many colleges in New York. At no one time in the three days' meeting was there more than one New York college president in attendance. The total of those who caught a glimpse of the proceedings in the three days was three. These doubtless unavoidable absences were much regretted. On the other hand there were present many representatives of colleges outside the State and a great body of secondary school principals teachers. They led the meeting, gave it its tone, learned to and know each other. And yet presently our New York colleges will perhaps be complaining that academic graduates from this State are going to other states for their college training. Conspicuous in many of the meetings, and always listened to with interest and respect, were Presidents Adams of Wisconsin, Hall of Clark, Baker of Colorado, and Canfield of Nebraska. Many other western college presidents sent letters and telegrams of regret. They would have been there but for Debs.

#### THE DISCUSSIONS

There were the usual reports. That on Examinations was of greatest significance. It may well be questioned whether anywhere in the world there now exists a more perfect examining machine than that controlled by the Regents of the U. S. N. Y. What it had to say about examinations was, therefore, especially worth hearing. And it had to say that its examinations were more flourishing than ever before, which we knew. It gave clear testimony, moreover, that no substitute for examinations had been devised, or in all human foresight ever would be. The thing to do is to make examinations as good as possible, and to remove the objectionable features as far as possible. We missed the scholarly report on the World's Recent Progress in Education, given last year by Principal Russell. This feature ought to be revived.

A most laudable attempt had been made in preparing the programme to concentrate the meeting on two foremost topics: the

Relation of the State to Higher Education, and the Report of the Committee of Ten. The discussion on the first topic was introduced by an able paper by ex-Senator Edward. This discussion had dramatic interest from the fact that the Constitutional Convention was almost certain to determine, and was then engaged in determining what this relation should be in New York. Many members of the convention listened to the discussion. Representatives of the Department of Public Instruction were also in attendance. They got cold comfort. Finally, on motion of Principal King the convocation voted to memorialize the convention to place the appointment of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in the hands of the Regents, which at this writing the convention seems not likely to do. "Do you expect to educate politics out of existence?" one of the delegates asked.

"Giving it to the Committee of Ten" has been a popular recreation for the past six months. The convocation gave it to them all day Friday. This sounds like concentration; but it is not difficult to discuss any conceivable question of ever so remote kinship to education and base the discussion on the Report of the Committee of Ten. Superintendent Kennedy introduced the discussion in an exhaustive paper, notable for its excellent style. Superintendent Emerson followed in a paper from which he read only extracts. These convinced us that we wanted the whole paper. Principal Robinson, a member of the Committee, made a notable criticism of the Report from the point of view of the large mixed school, the substance of which has already appeared in the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for June. We deem Principal Robinson's criticisms of vital importance, for they point out a larger danger for the Report than any other. The Report is aiming at the German "Einheitschule," uniformity in all schools of secondary grade, to be followed necessarily by uniformity in grammar, and then in primary, grades. This is a new warfare for us, but it has been fighting long in Germany and Scandinavia. Principal Robinson claims that the Report, perhaps through ignorance of real conditions, does not make enough of the difficulties of introducing the uniform programme into all sorts of schools of academic grade. We need not be surprised if this effort for uniformity shall lead to a reaction when the fact will be clearly recognized that the "maid-of-all-work" school is impracticable in



this country, as it has been declared to be in Germany. The differentiation of the high school and not its "uniformification" may be after all the coming movement in higher education.

## GENERAL NOTES

The convocation is a unique gathering. It offers the best opportunity in the world for the harmonious adjustment of relations between high schools and colleges, yet nowhere are these relations much worse adjusted than in New York. Michigan and other western states, with no such organization ready at hand, have established the famous educational ladder with one end in the gutter and the other in a university degree. Perhaps because in New York the gutter end has not been amenable, the ladder has not been planted. But there might and ought at least to be better fire escapes from the second story to the top. As for criticism, first and foremost sin was the lack of all opportunity for discussion. We have heard the cry "shorten and enrich the programmes" of the grammar schools. What a motto for next convocation! Discussion keeps a meeting alive as does nothing else. For, while only a few will actually take part in the discussion, every person in the audience feels that he or she is potentially liable to be drawn into it. The result of this uneasy feeling is anxious and absorbed attention. There was no proper understanding as to time. Readers who should have had twenty minutes were allowed to take an hour. Speakers who supposed they had twenty minutes were shut off short with ten, in one case at least very unfortunately. There was lack of educational leadership. We should like to know who the real leaders in education are in the State of New York. At least we should like to have them demonstrate this leadership in the great educational gathering of the State for the year. Probably only wider opportunity for discussion would give such leadership a chance to appear. Probably, too, if there were discussion, most of those who might be leaders would be found privately lamenting in hotel corridors the lack of vigorous thought on the floor of the convocation. It is easier to criticise than to act.

## THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

This is too big to be described. There were four or five thousand teachers present, and everybody said as many more

were kept away by the strike. There were many good, a few notably good, papers and addresses. The size of a meeting does not, however, determine its quality. It was a reasonably good looking, thoroughly self-respecting crowd, composed largely of women, with the exception of its officers, and it violated none of the respectability rules of Asbury Park. Most of the "great names" of the general programme failed to appear. Doubtless there were good reasons why Governor Werts and Secretary Hoke Smith and others who might be mentioned first agreed to be present and then telegraphed regrets. Certain it is that they disappointed many thousands of excellent people. Persons however great ought not to accept such invitations lightly. The multiplication of departments and the seemingly fixed number of hours in a day resulted in too crowded a programme. Of course many thousands of the many thousands in attendance made no attempt to attend meetings all day. Still it is unfortunate, even though there be no remedy, that all the department meetings must conflict, for there are not a few who want badly to be in from two to four places at once. In Chicago the arrangement was ideal, all the meetings in one building. One could then shop around without loss of time and hear the most interesting papers in several departments. At Asbury Park the afternoon meetings were so separated that fashionable calling was impracticable. It is to be hoped that next year all meetings may be, if not in one building, at least very close together. The educational exhibit of publishers and others was in a separate building, and formed one of the most valuable features of the meeting. We hope that hereafter better provision may be made for this exhibition, and that it may be more nearly complete. The election of Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler as president met with universal and hearty approval. We wish that the place for the next meeting had been definitely selected before the session broke up. Denver was the choice of the majority. It is a good choice. But in our opinion it is very unfortunate to leave the fixing of the place of meeting in the air. It makes a great difference in arranging programmes. Men will go to one place and not to another, and hesitate to agree to go until they know where they are to go. And programmes to be good must be taken in hand early.

## THE GENERAL MEETINGS

The general meetings in the auditorium morning and evening were always impressive. The N. E. A. ought, however, to appoint special police to eject chronic whisperers promptly and vigorously from its meetings. Their thoughtless and selfish activity in the general meetings was outrageous, despite President Lane's vigorous efforts to suppress them. The discussion on the Report of the Committee of Ten was introduced by Dr. Mackenzie in an admirable paper on "The Feasibility of Modifying the Programmes of the Elementary and Secondary Schools to Meet the Suggestions in the Report." The progress thus far made and our present position were clearly indicated. This, and President Baker's paper before the National Council were the two most important contributions to the discussion of the Report. President Baker made an exhaustive study of the Report, presenting concisely the points he should favor and those he should question. This summary we are able through his courtesy to give, and regret only that want of space prevents our publishing his paper in full.

## SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

After a careful review of the work of our committee, I venture to make a formal list of opinions presented, most of which I think should be heartily indorsed, reserving till later the discussion of a few of them.

1. That work in many secondary school studies should be begun earlier.
2. That each subject should be made to help every other, as, for example, history should contribute to the study of English, and natural history should be correlated with language, drawing, literature, and geography.
3. That every subject should be taught in the same way, whether in preparation for college or as part of a finishing course.
4. That more highly trained teachers are needed, especially for subjects that are receiving increased attention, as the various sciences and history.
5. That in all scientific subjects laboratory work should be extended and improved.

6. That for some studies special instructors should be employed to guide the work of teachers in elementary and secondary schools.

7. That all pupils should pursue a given subject in the same way and to the same extent as long as they study it at all.

8. That every study should be made a serious subject of instruction, and should cultivate the pupil's powers of observation, memory, expression, and reasoning.

9. That the choice between the classical course and the Latin-scientific course should be postponed as long as possible, until the taste and power of the pupil have been tested, and he has been able to determine his future aim.

10. That twenty periods per week should be adopted as the standard, providing that five of these periods be given to unprepared work.

11. That parallel programmes should be identical in as many of their parts as possible.

12. That drawing should be largely employed in connection with most of the studies.

13. The omission of industrial and commercial subjects. This is mentioned without comment.

14. That more field work should be required for certain sciences.

15. The desirability of uniformity.—Not definitely recommended in the report.

16. That the function of the high schools should be to prepare for the duties of life as well as to fit for college.

17. That colleges and scientific schools should accept any one of the courses of study as preparation for admission.

18. That a good course in English should be required of all pupils entering college.

19. That many teachers should employ various means for better preparation, such as summer schools, special courses of instruction given by college professors, and instruction of school superintendents, principals of high schools, or specially equipped teachers.

20. That the colleges should take a larger interest in secondary and elementary schools.

21. That technological and professional schools should require for admission a complete secondary school education.

22. That each study pursued should be given continuous time adequate to securing from it good results.

The points of the Report which I should question are as follows:

1. That Latin should be begun much earlier than now. (This is a conference recommendation.)
2. That English should be given as much time as Latin. (Conference recommendation.)
3. The large number of subjects recommended, with loss of adequate time for each.
4. The omission of a careful analysis of the value of each subject, absolute and relative, preparatory to tabulating courses.
5. The apparent implication that the multiplying of courses is advisable.
6. The implication that the choice of subjects by the pupils may be a matter of comparative indifference,—the doctrine of equivalence of studies.
7. Some parts of the model programmes made by the committee.

The three criticisms most emphasized:

1. The lack of a bold and clear analysis of the value of subjects before correlating the recommendations of the conferences.
2. The implications that the Committee favored an extreme theory of equivalence of studies.
3. Practical details in the organization of the model courses.

The Committee of Ten has been criticised most unjustifiably in some respects. As one speaker said "The Committee has been reviled because it did not revise the decalogue." It was not commissioned to remodel the universe, but only to do a certain definite thing. More remains to be done, and they know it as well as any one. Nor will everyone agree with the report, which is essentially like any tariff bill,—a measure of compromises. But the work of the Committee has been unquestionably the great work of educational leadership of our day.

The cause of child study received a great impetus at the hand of its apostle, President G. Stanley Hall. His address on Thursday evening was certainly one of the events of the meeting. How well he was understood is another question. "Is that the Spencer who has been writing the articles in the *Universal Schoolmaster* on Grube's method?" innocently inquired one bright faced schoolmistress when Herbert Spencer was mentioned. Commissioner Harris made a strong impression by his admirable address

on "The Influence of the Higher Education of a Country Upon Its Elementary Schools."

THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

President Adams said at Albany that he had been forced to the conclusion that the East was growing provincial. That must have been the opinion of those who made out the programme of the department of secondary education. Dr. Huling was the only eastern schoolman on the programme. But the attendance justified the programme makers. Very few prominent eastern teachers were there. This may have been partly because the general meetings treated subjects of interest to secondary teachers. The programme was made up of good individual papers, some of which we expect to give to our readers in their entirety later. It was, however, rather too full, the meetings were too much prolonged, and discussion was not treated with proper respect. The first paper, "Is It True That the Most Effective Part of the Education in This Country Is That of Secondary Schools," (an unfortunate wording, we think) by Principal Charles P. Lynch, of Cleveland, rather took the affirmative of the question and brought out a storm of opposition. The department was showing temper, and Mr. Hull's, of Lawrenceville, wise and moderate words were most timely. W. Wilberforce Smith contended for the teaching of Latin as a required study, at state expense. Miss Haslup read a bright paper on "How May a Professional Spirit Be Acquired by the Teachers of the Secondary Schools of America." At the second meeting Dr. Huling paid a graceful tribute to the memory of John S. Crombie, and among other good papers J. Remsen Bishop had a timely one on "The Future of the American High School and How It May Advance Patriotism," really two subjects, and treated as such. Dr. Amelia Earle Trant, the acting president, showed how admirable a presiding officer a woman may be. The first day's meeting was largely attended; the second poorly. Officers for next year are: President, Principal W. H. Smiley, Denver High school; Vice President, Miss H. L. Keeler, Central High school, Cleveland, O.; Secretary, Principal C. H. Thurber, Colgate academy.

*C. H. T.*

## BOOK DEPARTMENT

*A full description of the books received, giving size, price, etc., will be found in the list of "Publications Received" in this issue, or, generally, in a preceding issue of the SCHOOL REVIEW.*

*The Development of the Athenian Constitution.* By GEORGE WILLIS BOTSFORD, PH. D., Professor of Greek in Bethany College. [*Cornell Studies in Classical Philology*, No. IV.] 8vo, pp. 249. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1893.

The author of the above work has undertaken to give a concise account of the development of the Athenian constitution from the Aryan family to the democracy of the age of Perikles. Within the limitations of the space determined upon, the work has been excellently done. Dr. Botsford has gone to the best and latest literature on the subject, and to the original sources in Greek. Although there was not room for anything of importance that was new, the work is not a mere compilation. Independence of judgment is shown, and for the most part the author's judgment is sound. The result is a monograph that clearly constitutes the best introduction that exists in English to a large subject, and a subject of great and increasing interest to all who care for the study of political institutions.

The first chapters take us back to a dim antiquity, about which our information is necessarily of an indirect kind, derived from the study of early Indo-European language, from survivals of primitive usage in modern communities, and from inferences based on later Greek institutions. Here is wide room for speculation; while all the sources indicated are legitimate, they must be drawn upon with caution, and results are to be treated as probable, merely, until something more secure is attainable. The fascination of this kind of enquiry must not lead us to over-estimate our conclusions. Dr. Botsford's first four chapters, on the Patriarchal Theory, the Aryan Gens, the Grecian Gens, and the Phratry and Phyle, deal almost wholly with prehistoric conditions; although Homer and Attic traditions furnish some scanty but indubitable facts. The really historical element increases gradually as the Four Ionic Phylae, the Basileia, and the Oligarchy before Draco are passed in review. In Chapter VIII, on the Draconian Timocracy, a little firmer footing is reached, and the remaining chapters cover well-known ground. It is a valuable feature of the work that references are constantly given to other authorities, so that the student using the book as an introduction is directed at once to means of pursuing each branch of the sub-



ject further without waste of labor. This is followed up with a tolerably full bibliography, and finally there is a good index.

Naturally in a work covering so large a field, much of which is very imperfectly known, there is not infrequently room for difference of opinion; occasionally it seems to us that a statement is pushed too far, or is clearly erroneous. It is a pity to do anything, even unintentionally, to perpetuate a frequent mistake, as is done in the carelessly worded statement on page 202, "The work of the *Ecclesia* was mainly legislative." The popular assembly never legislated, in the proper sense of the term. But these are minor blemishes. On the whole the book may be cordially recommended to all who would find the more extended and special works in German difficult to use. All teachers of Greek history will find it, particularly the latter half of it, stimulating and helpful.

Thomas Dwight Goodell

Yale University

*Livy, Books XXI and XXII, with Introduction and Notes*, by J. B. GREENOUGH and TRACY PECK. College Series of Latin Authors. Boston: Ginn & Co.

As is stated in the preface, the scope and method of this volume of Livy are the same as those of Professor Greenough's edition of Books I and II in the same series. "The wants of college students have been kept steadily in view, and the chief object of the commentary is to stimulate such students and aid them in forming the habit of reading Latin *as Latin*, of apprehending thought in the Latin form and sequence, and of entering with intelligent sympathy into the workings of Livy's mind and his conception of his country's history and destiny."

In these days when so many American scholars are occupied in adapting German editions of the classics to the use of their own students, or even in translating them bodily into English, it is gratifying to take up a book which is prepared directly for the use of American students and designed to meet their special needs. In most cases the Latin course in our colleges begins with the reading of Livy, and unfortunately it usually falls to the lot of the freshman instructor to be obliged to initiate his students into the art of reading Latin, to teach them to grasp the meaning of Latin sentences from the original, following the order of the Latin words. He can give little or no time to matters which do not contribute directly to that end.

The plan which the editors of this volume have adopted is therefore a thoroughly good one, and it has been so consistently carried out as to give their book, and the companion edition of Livy I and II, a marked individuality. The reader is constantly reminded of the force of the order of the Latin words, the exact

meaning of particles, and the differences in signification of synonyms. Such notes cannot fail to be suggestive and helpful to all students and to many teachers.

In the notes on syntax, which are comparatively few, the same general aim is kept in view, and the shades of meaning expressed by certain uses of the moods and tenses are clearly pointed out. Due attention is given to the peculiarities of Livy's language and style.

The notes on history, antiquities, and topography are brief, but good; they are sufficient to enable the student to understand the narrative without distracting his attention by irrelevant matter.

The text is preceded by an introduction, which gives a brief account of the relations between Rome and Carthage, some account of Livy's authorities, and an estimate of his method of dealing with historical problems.

The press-work, as is usual in this series, is good, except that the italic *g's* seem to have suffered. On p. 48 *una legioni* occurs.

John C. Rolfe

University of Michigan

*Object Lessons and How to Give Them.* By GEORGE RICKS, London, Eng. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

The first series of the above-named little work consists of lessons upon the properties of material objects—size, form, color, surface, flavor, etc. These are followed by lessons upon different material objects, such as "A Basket of Vegetables", "A Brick", "A Carriage", "Pins and Needles", etc.

The second series consists of more advanced lessons of the same kind. With a little different, and more careful arrangement, it might serve as a working text-book in elementary physics.

The lessons are not without a certain degree of excellence in plan and matter. A quarter of a century, or more, ago, such lessons represented the best that could be done in the way of instruction with objects in the elementary schools. They closely resemble the "Object Lessons" presented by the exponents of the "Home and Colonial School for the Training of Teachers" in London, England. Thirty years ago, this school was instrumental in doing something of benefit for elementary instruction in both Canada and the United States. The Normal School at Toronto, Ontario, and the Oswego Normal and Training School are indebted to it in some degree. In both of those institutions traces of "Object Lessons" similar to those presented by Mr. Ricks, may still be found.

Upon the whole, however, "Object Lessons" have had their day, and have been superseded by "objective" instruction in all the subjects of study in the elementary schools.

The lack of connection among the "Object Lessons" renders it impossible for the pupil to do more than observe. Observation which is a psychical, rather than a physical process, is not an end in itself, but a means for psychical development, which can only be secured by the use that is made of the products gained through observing. Those products can only be used in so far as they are selected by similarity. A lesson upon a basket of vegetables, one day, a brick, the next, and pins and needles, on the day following, cannot secure that consciousness of similarities and differences among objects, which is calculated to result in classification, and generalization, or the discovery of law, which latter is the final aim of all study, since only the knowledge of law forms a foundation for effective action.

The apprehension of the real purpose of observation has led to an effort, more or less extended in this country, to secure consecutive instruction in natural science in the elementary schools.

Series of connected lessons in mineralogy, botany, zoölogy, physics, etc., illustrated by suitable material, have taken the place of the desultory work with unrelated objects, and will doubtless secure much more satisfactory results than the so-called "Object Lessons."

Besides laying no foundation for scientific study, it may be mentioned that "Object Lessons" upon unrelated subjects are not calculated to rouse a permanent interest in investigation and study.

The psychological basis of Mr. Ricks's work, as presented in the introduction, also reminds us of the psychology of instruction as presented by the "Home and Colonial School" before-mentioned. It will hardly stand the test of the educational psychology of to-day, and we cannot but wish that it were characterized by the insight evidenced by Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, Mr. T. G. Rooper, in his "Pot of Green Feathers."

Notwithstanding our objections to "Object Lessons" in general, we have pleasure in commending some points which characterize Mr. Ricks's "Object Lessons" in particular. The lessons are brief, and are sufficiently illustrated. The matter is adequate, and true, and is clearly and concisely expressed.

The questioning is good, upon the whole, though it would hardly reach the standard presented by Mr. Fitch in his pamphlet upon "Questioning."

The publishers have done their part of the work with their usual care and skill, so that the books have an attractive appearance.

*Margaret K. Smith*

*Oswego Normal School*

*From Milton to Tennyson: Masterpieces of English Poetry.* By L. DUPONT SYLE. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1894.

On taking up this book, the question naturally arises, *cui bono?* especially since most high school pupils have ready access to Ward's "English Poets", "The Golden Treasury", and other excellent compilations of the same sort. And the question is further justified when it is remembered that there are many monographs giving selections from the various authors here represented, as well as notes explanatory of the difficulties—real and supposed—of the text. But nevertheless this volume meets a want hitherto but imperfectly supplied. The instructor will many times be thankful that he can place in the hands of his pupils in so compact form, so wide and judicious a selection from the English poets. The value of the book lies in the fact that it enables the student in so short a space to gain so clear and comprehensive a view of the poetry of the period selected. While it is by no means an encyclopedia of poetry, its value will be readily appreciated as a reference book in the elementary study of English poetry.

The book has two parts. The first of 306 pages consists of selections, while the notes occupy the remaining 161 pages. The poets from whose works selections are made are Milton, Dryden, Pope, Thomson, Johnson, Gray, Goldsmith, Cowper, Burns, Coleridge, Byron, Keats, Shelley, Wordsworth, Macaulay, Clough, Matthew Arnold, Browning, and Tennyson. In the main, one does not feel like criticising the author in the selections he has made. The book gives a very fair idea of the main characteristics of English poetry for the period chosen, though possibly one could wish that a few additions be made.

In the Notes are given a brief biography of the poet, a bibliography, a short introduction to the poem, and notes elucidating the difficulties of the text. The author gives pupils the excellent advice to avoid the bibliography of criticism, and read more extensively in the works of the poet himself.

G. B. Turnbull

Colorado Springs, Colo.

*Congressional Manual of Parliamentary Practice.* By J. HOWARD GORE, PH. D. pp. 112. Price 50 cents. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen, 1893.

This is a little book which it was well to make. The brief preface gives a clear notion of the reason which induced the compiler to attempt his task, viz.: His belief that parliamentary practice in this country should follow American rules and precedents rather than English. The main reason he gives for his be-

lief is that we have in our National Congress a body "well adapted to devise laws of order best suited to every exigency that can arise in a deliberative assembly." Let us therefore adopt home practice and procedure, he says—especially if thereby parliamentary rulings in different states may be at one, and the business of national conventions be transacted "with ease, rapidity, and mutual understanding." Most certainly, let us!—if such adoption will lead to such results.

The compiler has aimed to give "a complete system of rules", deduced from House and Senate practice, "adequate for the governing of any assembly". That is a large task to essay, and only after many tests can it be determined whether he has been completely successful; for the curious and kinky parliamentary questions and complications which may arise in long and perhaps fierce discussions, no man can foresee.

Perhaps the best purpose the book will subserve will be as a book of reference in disputed cases—to settle the question of congressional usage. To such reference-use, an admirable table of motions and their applicability or non-applicability, an alphabetical arrangement of topics, a full-faced bringing out of the salient thought of each paragraph, and a citation of the best authorities in a few mooted points—all conduce. In brief, a handy book to go with, and stay by, the parliamentarian or presiding officer.

H. K. Wickes

*Syracuse High School*

*Cornelii Taciti Dialogus De Oratoribus.* A revised text with introductory essays and critical and explanatory notes. By W. PETERSON, M. A., LL. D. pp. xci+119. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1893.

The scholarship, painstaking, and good judgment of the editor, combined with the liberality of the publisher, make this book a worthy presentation of one of the most interesting specimens of Latin literature.

In his introduction the editor gives an exhaustive discussion of the problems connected with the dialogue, a discussion whose thoroughness, clearness, and value make it a model for this kind of work.

The introductory essays, which occupy nearly one-half the volume, treat of the following subjects:—authorship and date, the substance and scheme of the dialogue, the interlocutors and their parts, the style and language, the manuscripts. To these are added a bibliography of the subject, comprising about fifty dissertations. While giving a *résumé* of the various opinions concerning the first subject and stating fairly the opposing views, the editor has little doubt in assigning the authorship to Tacitus and

the time of writing as about 84-85; and the grounds for these opinions are well presented.

While this book is far removed from the ordinary text-book and is better adapted for the use of scholars than of beginners, yet it may be recommended to teachers in secondary schools and to undergraduate college students. It may bring into the humdrum of their common round a quickening breath, and open an inspiring glimpse into a higher realm of scholarship.

Wm. M. Aber

*University of Utah*

*Introduction to Theme-Writing.* By J. B. FLETCHER and G. R. CARPENTER. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

The first thing to note about this eminently clear and practical little book is the indication it furnishes of the immense advance in the teaching of English composition. There are no lists of graduated and classified themes, such as characterized the old-fashioned text-books. Nothing at all is said about writing those nondescript things called "compositions", which used to have confessedly no further significance than to be occasions for the correction of grammar, spelling, and choice of words. Instead of being directed to grind out these things the student is here set at real literary tasks, forms of composition such as the best writers cultivate, methods that obtain in the highest enterprises of literature, ways of working such as, once mastered, will never cease to be practical. In this there is great advantage. If the student must "go through the motions" of composition, as of course he must, there is great stimulus in his undertaking from the outset work that he may recognize as real and that he may compare at every step with the literature of books and magazines.

Following this principle of practical literary work, the book takes up the usual rhetorical forms, letter-writing, translation, description, narration, criticism, exposition, argument, defining under each various procedures and methods, illustrating copiously from literature, and appending numerous exercises both critical and constructive. The definitions are for the most part clear; some of them very felicitous. About the whole book is that air of freshness and interest which comes from individual study and testing of the various procedures, and which cannot be imparted to a mere traditional rhetoric.

Well adapted to the students for whom it is intended, namely the lower classes in college, the book contemplates a grade of work and literary discrimination a little too advanced for high-school students, though these may well profit by many things in it.

John F. Genung

*Amherst College*

*A Theory of Development and Heredity.* By HENRY B. ORR, PH. D., Professor at the Tulane University of Louisiana. New York and London: Macmillan & Co., 1893. pp. vi+255.

The preëminently distinctive and dominant science of the present century is biology. This is evident not only from the immense amount of intellectual energy expended on biological investigation, and the number and importance of the discoveries in this line, but also from the influence which the facts, theories, and conceptions of this science is exercising in all fields of thought. That the struggle for existence will explain in great measure, if not indeed altogether, the elimination of unfavorable variations and the preservation of favorable ones, is generally accepted among biologists, but as to the origin of these variations there is the widest difference of opinion. Since the publication, a few years ago, of Weismann's theory of heredity, according to which the transmission of acquired character is pronounced impossible, the scientific world would have been divided into two hostile camps—the opponents of this thing asserting, and its advocates denying that the impressions of the environment on the individual organism are inherited by its descendants. Professor Orr takes his stand in the anti-Weismannian camp and explains the phenomena of development and heredity by the laws of habit *i. e.* the perfecting of a process by continued repetition of the process.

The book shows a tendency at some points to take the assumption of physiological psychology for conclusions and to confuse the nervous and the psychic. In general, however, it is clear and thoroughly scientific in spirit. The style is excellent. It is a thoughtful and suggestive work and will be read with interest and profit by both the general reader and the special student. The modesty and candor with which the author sets forth his conclusions is in happy contrast with the dogmatic assertiveness displayed by many recent writers on scientific philosophic subjects.

F. C. French

Colgate University

#### NOTES

One cannot fail to be surprised in looking over the second edition of *King's Hand-Book of New York City* (Moses King, Boston, Mass. Price \$2.) at the amount of interesting and valuable information compressed within the limits of a thousand octavo pages. The book has, moreover, over a thousand illustrations of points of interest and notable buildings in the city, and it is only fair to say that the illustrations are uniformly good. New York, as the metropolis of the new world, has a great interest for all. The book is well written and thoroughly entertaining.



Mr. Henry Clark Johnson, until recently president of the Central High School, Philadelphia, has prepared for use in American colleges a revision of Shuckburgh's edition of Cicero's *Laelius*—(Messrs. Macmillan & Co.). Mr. Shuckburgh used the text of Dr. J. S. Reid, and the reviser states that he has "corrected some errors, and made some few changes in words, punctuation, and orthography." The notes are based upon those of the English editors, but Mr. Johnson has made such additions to the commentary as he deemed necessary to fit the book for its special purpose, and has added references to the grammars of Allen and Greenough, and Harkness. The commentary occupies about fifty-eight pages and seems to be sufficient for school purposes. The reviser states that he has corrected numerous misprints of the English editions, but a somewhat hurried examination of the vocabulary shows that it contains many errors and inconsistencies in the matter of the quantities. Thus, for example, *arbitratus* has the penult marked short; *cura*, the ultima long; *debeo* and *debilito* both have the antepenult marked short; the penult of *dare* is marked long. In general, the quantity is indicated in a happy-go-luck way, so that it is impossible to see why some vowels are marked while others are left unmarked. Thus, on the same page the first vowel of *ceterus* is unmarked while the first vowel of *cogito* is marked long. The spelling "Sylla", p. 165, looks odd nowadays in a text-book.

Interesting reading matter will be found this month on the advertising pages at the end of this magazine.

*The Temple Shakespeare*, (New York, Macmillan & Co., 45 cents each vol.) now includes in rarely dainty little volumes, "Much Ado About Nothing", "Love's Labour's Lost", "The Merry Wives of Windsor", "Two Gentlemen of Verona", "The Tempest", "The Comedy of Errors", and "Measure for Measure." Where they can be afforded we cordially recommend the use of the separate volumes of this edition in school classes for the sake of the aesthetic cultivation that the students must get from using and owning such beautiful books.

We call especial attention to the classified list of new publications that appears from month to month on the last pages of the *SCHOOL REVIEW*. The list this month is especially full and suggestive. Great efforts have been put forth to make this list of value to our readers as a monthly bibliography of new publications of special interest to teachers in higher schools. In this effort we have met with generous co-operation on the part of the publishers. An examination of the list this month will, we believe, make our readers of our own opinion, that no journal now gives a more valuable, and more easily used current bibliography.

Praise is superfluous for the best. The appearance of Skeat's Edition of *Chaucer* (Clarendon Press; New York, Macmillan & Co.), is distinctly an event in the world of letters. The work is to be complete in six splendid volumes, three of which have already appeared. Vol. I commences with a Life of Chaucer, containing all the known facts and incidents that have been recorded, with authorities for the same, and dates. It also contains the "Romaunt of the Rose," and the minor poems, with a special introduction and illustrative notes. Vol. II contains "Boethius" and "Troilus," each with a special introduction. The text of "Troilus" is a new one. Vol. III contains "The House of Fame," "The Legend of Good Women," and "The Treatise on the Astrolabe," with special introductions. Succeeding volumes are to contain the "Canterbury Tales," the "Tale of Gamelyn," and all needed helps for reading Chaucer, such as remarks on pronunciation, grammar, scansion, glossarial index, and index of names. The fame of the distinguished editor's learning makes this edition a necessity for all serious students of English; at the same time there is a clearness and charm of style about the introductions and notes that will attract anyone at all interested in our literature. Admirable paper, typography, and presswork, and a reliable buckram binding add substantially to the value of this altogether worthy collection of our great poet's works. Through these volumes a knowledge of his merit must inevitably be much extended.

### CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

*A Taste for Good Reading.* By PROF. CHARLES ELIOT NORTON in Preface to Vol. II of "Heart of Oak Books".

A taste for good reading is an acquisition the worth of which is hardly to be overestimated; and yet a majority of children, even of those favored by circumstances, grow up without it. This defect is due partly to the fault or ignorance of parents and teachers; partly, also, to the want, in many cases, of the proper means of cultivation. For this taste, like most others, is usually not so much a gift of nature as a product of cultivation. A wide difference exists, indeed, in children in respect to their natural inclination for reading, but there are few in whom it cannot be more or less developed by careful and judicious training.

This training should begin very early. Even before the child has learned the alphabet, his mother's lullaby or his nurse's song

may have begun the attuning of his ear to the melodies of verse, and the quickening of his mind with pleasant fancies. As he grows older, his first reading should be made attractive to him by its ease and entertainment.

The reading lesson should never be hard or dull; nor should it be made the occasion for instruction in any specific branch of knowledge. The essential thing is that in beginning to learn to read the child should like what he reads or hears read, and that the matter should be of a sort to fix itself in his mind without wearisome effort. He should be led on by pleasure from step to step.

His very first reading should mainly consist in what may cultivate his ear for the music of verse, and may rouse his fancy. And to this end nothing is better than the rhymes and jingles which have sung themselves, generation after generation, in the nursery or on the playground. "Mother Goose" is the best primer. No matter if the rhymes be nonsense verses; many a poet might learn the lesson of good versification from them, and the child in repeating them is acquiring the accent of emphasis and of rhythmical form. Moreover, the mere art of reading is the more readily learned, if the words first presented to the eye of the child are those which are already familiar to his ear.

The next step is easy, to the short stories which have been told since the world was young; old fables in which the teachings of long experience are embodied, legends, fairy tales, which form the traditional common stock of the fancies and sentiment of the race.

These naturally serve as the gate of entrance into the wide open fields of literature, especially into those of poetry. *Poetry is one of the most efficient means of education of the moral sentiment, as well as of the intelligence. It is the source of the best culture.* A man may know all science and yet remain uneducated. But let him truly possess himself of the work of any one of the great poets, and no matter what else he may fail to know, he is not without education.

The field of good literature is so vast that there is something in it for every intelligence. But the field of bad literature is not less broad, and is likely to be preferred by the common uncultivated taste. To make good reading more attractive than bad, to give right direction to the choice, the growing intelligence of the child should be nourished with selected portions of the best literature, the virtue of which has been approved by long consent. These selections, besides merit in point of literary form, should possess as general human interest as possible, and should be specially chosen with reference to the culture of the imagination.

The imagination is the supreme intellectual faculty, and yet it is of all the one which receives least attention in our common systems of education. The reason is not far to seek. The imagination is of all the faculties the most difficult to control; it is the most

elusive of all, the most far-reaching in its relations, the rarest in its full power. But upon its healthy development depend not only the sound exercise of the faculties of observation and judgment, but also the command of the reason, the control of the will, and the quickening and growth of the moral sympathies. The means for its culture which good reading affords is the most generally available and one of the most efficient. The youth who shall become acquainted with the masterpieces of English literature will share in the common stock of the intellectual life of the race to which he belongs; and will have the door opened to him of all the vast and noble resources of that life. But the worth of the masterpieces of any art increases with use and familiarity of association. They grow fresher by custom; and the love of them deepens in proportion to the time we have known them, and to the memories with which they have become invested.

In the use of books in the education of children, it is desirable that much of the poetry which they contain should be committed to memory. *To learn by heart the best poems is one of the best parts of the school education of the child.* But it must be learning *by heart*; that is, not merely by rote as a task, but by heart as a pleasure. The exercise, however difficult at first, becomes easy with continual practice. At first the teacher must guard against exacting too much; weariness quickly leads to disgust; and the young scholar should be helped to find delight in work itself.

O. B. R.

*An Experiment in Correcting Compositions.* By WM. H. MAXWELL.  
Educational Review, March, 1894.

Considering the amount of drudgery and the danger of narrowing that awaits the theme critic, whether in the grammar school or college, it is surprising that so little attention has been paid by constructors of educational methods to the important matter of correcting compositions. The mother tongue, clear and accurate, is the universal demand. But the means for securing this result are essentially undeveloped. Mr. Prince in his *Courses of Studies and Methods of Teaching* laid down the most usual method, viz., the theme writing by the pupils; the marking by the teacher; the rewriting by the pupils. But this method imposes the very burden that it is the problem to avoid, that of the unendurable drudgery of correction by the teacher. Under this method the exercises must necessarily be few, the correcting a perfunctory task; the first necessity furnishing a formidable barrier to worthy results and the second a sure road for perfunctory work by the pupil. To avoid this some teachers have the exercises transferred to the blackboard. But public criticism imposes an unnecessary and undesirable humiliation. Comparing the two sys-

tems, however, the latter is to be preferred. Among some of the rules that experience has developed regarding theme writing, are the following,—it must be a daily exercise; the writer's purpose must be to express thought, hence familiar topics must be selected; the subject matter should be so thoroughly in hand that thinking or meditation shall monopolize no part of the composition period; reference books should be convenient and usable; models of style should be studied; sentence structure must be learned before that of the paragraph. For the correction of errors the following plan is suggested. The class is allowed ten or fifteen minutes in which to write what they can on the topic in the class work of the preceding day. Then the pupils are told to read each his own composition silently, to discover mistakes in paragraphing and thought grouping, and to make corrections by erasing and interlining. The next reading is to correct the sentence structure, capitalization, and punctuation. Lastly, it should be read to discover misspelled words. All doubts should be settled by appeal to the dictionary. Such an exercise can be accomplished in the grammar school in thirty minutes. The practical result of such a system is to make the composition period one of the most interesting of the day. The compositions are not so neat as if painfully copied, but they tell of honest, intelligent work on the part of the child and of burdens lifted from the shoulders of the teacher.

E. W. Smith

*The Ideal Training of an American Boy.* THOMAS DAVIDSON. Forum, July.

In the American education of to-day there are two things which force themselves upon our attention: (1) that it is in a chaotic condition; (2) that this condition is, in the main, due to our having no definite notion of what education is aiming at. To find a way out of this condition we must determine the fundamental ideal of American life—of American manhood. In a word, this is freedom. Ideal Americanism means absolute moral autonomy. The essential conditions of moral autonomy are: (1) well arranged, practical knowledge of men and things; (2) healthy, well-distributed affections; (3) a ready will, loyal to such knowledge and such affections. To realize these must be the aim of American education. Erudition and professional training, however necessary and valuable, form no part of the education of the American as American, or of man as man. This ideal boy must be the son of parents of unlimited means, with whom the question of cost will never be raised. Until he is seven years old the child will be educated, mainly by uncon-

scious processes, in the family, in association with German and French governesses. His affections and sympathies will be carefully directed. At seven he will be put in a small private school, founded by several families with this ideal aim, where the objects for the next four or five years will be: (1) to bring the child into noble and kindly relations to other children, enabling it to practise generosity and self-control; (2) to strengthen its body and its social instincts by healthy, not over-boisterous games; (3) to develop its memory; (4) to put it in possession of the means of future education, reading, writing, manual facility (including drawing), and the elements of music. At the age of eleven or twelve the boy will be ready either (1) to attend a large school, public or private, where he will be developed into a good citizen of the current stamp, with ordinary interests, wholesome dread of departure from established tenets of his class, steeped in mediocrity and philistinism, and well cured of notions and ideals that rise above the average or depart from it; or (2) to travel until eighteen under a tutor who shall instruct him in logic, mathematics, physics, drawing, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, French, German, English, Italian, history, biography, poetry, ethics, politics, and æsthetics. As for the delights of such study, "How different is 'The Odyssey' read on the shores of the Ægean, 'The Oresteia' read in the Dionysiac theatre in Athens or on the acropolis of Mycenæ, the Platonic 'Phædo' read in the 'prison of Socrates', the odes of Horace read on the hills behind Subiaco, or the orations of Cicero read in sight of the Roman Forum, from what they are when read as parsing exercises in the school of a 'crammer' for Harvard or Yale! And how different is even the Bible when read in Judea from what it is elsewhere!" Our ideal boy after this experience will have the self-control, the earnest view of life, and the large, generous outlook that will fit him to brave the perils of a college, with its half-mediæval, half-professional curriculum, dry, uninspiring formalism, useless erudition, easy philistinism, dreary pessimism pert, callow germanism; and, on the part of the students, (all but our ideal boy) boyishness, smug foppishness, and stupid devotion to half-brutal games and half-silly girls. Still, spite of all this and much more, there are elements in college life which the youth who aims at free manhood cannot afford to overlook. This valuable element consists almost, if not quite, altogether in the social and friendly relations which the students establish with one another. In closing Mr. D. says: "I am aware that the ideal which I have set up in this article is high and unworldly;

but I am sure it is the true American ideal, and I know that it has been already realized by not a few of our young men."

We cannot refrain from expressing our opinion that this excellent description of the ideal training of a snob does great injustice to the spirit and work of our schools, and very poor service to the all-important topic it purposes to discuss.

*Amerikanisches Bildungswesen.* By PROF. DR. EMIL HAUSKNECHT.

It is good sometimes to see ourselves as others see us. Dr. Hausknecht is an experienced German teacher who visited the United States in 1890 and in 1893, saw much of our schools and tells something of what he saw in this "Wissenschaftliche Beilage." In spite of recent revelations as to the exceeding sinfulness of our school system we are not so much surprised that H. finds much to commend. There is a passion for education, a heart-hunger for education in the United States. Boston has the best schools, though Minneapolis, St. Paul, Denver, Indianapolis, and Washington are deserving. Great sums are spent, and schooling is free. Even materials and text-books are free. This is necessary in the absence of a compulsory law, to attract as many children as possible to school and keep them there. Co-education started in the west as a make-shift, and has won its way steadily east. As a make-shift it is better than nothing, but in principle it ignores natural differences in sexes. It is less harmful in the United States than it would be in Germany, because here there are only five school days a week, and only five hours of school a day. Consequently the nervous strain on girls is not so great as it would be in German schools. The great number of women teachers in all grades is very noticeable. A greater proportion of capable and thoroughly trained male teachers in high schools would materially raise the level of these schools. Spite of lack of religious training in the schools, religion is nowhere else so intensely manifested as in the United States. This is shown particularly by the fact that Robert Elsmere, by Mr. (!) Humphry Ward, is to be found everywhere where the English language is spoken. Gymnastic training is coming up, though yet behind that of Germany, many gymnasiums are super-luxurious in equipment. The gymnasium of the Woman's college at Baltimore even has a special apparatus for drying hair quickly! But, if we are behind Germany in gymnastics, we are distinctly ahead in all forms of out-door sports. The great use made of books of reference in our schools is noteworthy. The reason is probably because our teachers are such an uneven lot we can never tell what they



will know; so it is better to send children to reference books which are relatively consistent in their statements of facts. Another (and better), reason is the desire to cultivate independent habits. Very worthy of imitation is the great amount of blackboard space in United States school rooms. (See article Teaching of Mathematics in Germany in Oct. number for description of the usual blackboard equipment there.) University extension is described, and illustrated by two syllabuses, both English. The brochure closes with a set of examination papers for admission to Bryn Mawr college. The observations are intelligent, and entirely friendly and sympathetic. We finish the reading with the impression that we are not such a hopeless set after all.

*The Chaos in Moral Training.* By PROFESSOR JOHN DEWEY. Popular Science Monthly, August.

Each student of a large class was asked to state some typical early moral experience of his own, relating, say, to obedience, honesty, and truthfulness, and the impression left by the outcome upon his own mind, especially the impression as to the reason for the virtue in question. Nine-tenths of the answers may be classified under one of the following heads: The impression left by the mode of treatment was that the motive for right doing is, (1) found in the consequences of the act; (2) fear of being punished; (3) simply because it is right; (4) because right doing pleases the parent, while wrong doing displeases; (5) the religious motive. In number the religious motive predominates; next to that comes fear of punishment. Often several of these reasons were inculcated. Everyone will admit without dispute that the question of the moral attitude and tendencies induced in youth by the motives for conduct habitually brought to bear is the ultimate question in all education whatever. Yet, as a matter of fact, moral education is the most hazardous of all things; it is assumed that the knowledge of the right reasons to be instilled and knowledge of the methods to be used in instilling these reasons "come by nature", as reading and writing came to Dogberry. There is a wide gulf between theory and practice. Either prevailing theory is very wrong, or much of present practice, as measured by it, is barbarous in its disregard of scientific principles. In and so far as the child cannot see the meaning and value of his acts and value them for himself, it becomes absurd to insist upon questions of morality in connection with them. A distinct, painful impression was left on the writer's mind by the papers of the comparative frequency with which



parents assume that an act is consciously wrong and punish it as such, when in the child's mind the act is simply psychological—based upon ideas and emotions which, under the circumstances, are natural. To give a reason to a child, to suggest to him a motive—no matter what—for doing the right thing, is to have and use a moral theory.

*The Scope of the Normal School.* By M. V. O'SHEA. Atlantic, June.

A comprehensive view of the rise and work of the normal school and the difficulty of giving it a fixed place in our educational system. "The true function of the normal school, while yet impossible to be fully realized because of the character of our school system as a whole, is still being gradually approached as the duties of the several parts of this system become more clearly defined and accomplished. It should be emphasized again that the normal school must adapt itself to the other parts of our school system; it must wait for them to determine in a large measure its field of usefulness. That it has come to stay there can be little question, and it is only a matter of time when it shall attain its ideal, that of purely professional instruction in the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools."

*Distribution of Government Publications.* By EDWARD S. MORSE. Popular Science Monthly, August,

Calls attention to the great value of government publications, and the extremely careless and unsystematic way in which they are distributed. "If it were possible to establish a separate bureau of distribution it would lead to economy of administration, to the economical and efficacious distribution of reports, the avoidance of duplication, and consequently the placing of material where it would do the most good, or at least where it would not be used to kindle the kitchen fire. Reports which tend to the advancement of human learning, printed and distributed, as they are, freely by the nation, should reach in every case those who stand most in need of them."

*Will the Co-Educated Co-Educate Their Children?* By PROFESSOR MARTHA F. CROW. Forum, July.

Yes, they will. Letters were sent to 180 married women, selected from the membership of the Association of Colgate Alumnae. Those selected were supposed to be about forty years old, likely to have children of their own approaching college age, consequently confronted by a condition and

not a theory. One hundred and thirty-three answered, of whom 109 will co-educate their children, or would if they had any; and only seven wouldn't. Extracts from the replies are given at some length.

*Research the Vital Spirit of Teaching.* G. STANLEY HALL. Forum, July.

Essentially a plea for the investigating university, on the author's well-known principles. "Excessive teaching palls and kills." Excellent above all is "the discipline that comes by doing." . . . "The clearer and more permeable for other minds science becomes, the more it tends to express itself in terms of willed action, which is the language of complete men."

*The College Graduate and Public Life.* By THEODORE ROOSEVELT. Atlantic, August.

"The first great lesson which the college graduate should learn is the lesson of work rather than of criticism. Criticism is necessary and useful; it is often indispensable; but it can never take the place of action, or be even a poor substitute for it. It is the doer of deeds who actually counts in the battle of life."

## FOREIGN NOTES

### "OVER-INSTRUCTION" THE VOGUE, NOT EDUCATION.

*The Schoolmaster, (London) Feb. 3, 1894.*

With not one syllable stronger than the case demands, Huxley pillories that system with which we are, unfortunately, familiar in this country, the system of allowing over-instruction to masquerade as education.

"What wonder, then, if very recently an appeal has been made to statistics for the profoundly foolish purpose of showing that education is of no good—that it diminishes neither misery nor crime among the masses of mankind? I reply, why should the thing which has been called education do either the one or the other? If I am a knave or a fool, teaching me to read and write won't make me less of either one or the other—unless somebody shows me how to put my reading and writing to wise and good purposes.

"Suppose any one were to argue that medicine is of no use, because it could be proved statistically that the percentage of deaths was just the same among people who had been taught how to open a medicine chest, and among those who did not so much as know the key by sight. The argument is absurd; but it is not more preposterous than that against which I am contending. The only medicine for suffering, crime, and all the other woes of mankind, is wisdom. Teach a man to read and write, and you have put into his hands the great keys of the wisdom box. But it is quite another matter whether he ever opens the box or not. And he is as likely to poison as to cure himself, if, without guidance, he swallows the first drug that comes."

### ABOUT EXAMINATIONS.

Huxley's note here is unmistakable. "*Examination*," he says, the italics being ours, "*like fire, is a good servant, but a bad master; and there seems to me to be some danger of its becoming our master.* I by no means stand alone in this opinion. Experienced friends of mine do not hesitate to say that students whose career they watch, appear to them to become deteriorated by the constant effort to pass this or that examination, just as we hear of men's brains becoming affected by the daily necessity of catching a train. *They work to pass, not to know; and outraged Science takes her revenge. . . . I believe that examination will remain but an imperfect test of knowledge, and a still more imperfect test of capacity, while it tells next to nothing about a man's power as an investigator.*"

Elsewhere he says: "The educational abomination of desolation of the present day is the stimulation of young people to work at high pressure by incessant competitive examinations.

## SCIENCE NOTES.

*England. Journal of Education, (London) March, 1894.*

There is a vast amount of work to be done yet in the direction of reforming science teaching in schools. It is still in too many cases the mere methodical acquisition of a text-book, relieved rather than illustrated by the performance of experiments, a concession to the parent rather than a part of the headmaster's conception of the educational process. So far, science teaching is not science teaching at all. The method and the mental operation are precisely the same as they would be in teaching history or what passes for literature in schools, save that statements have to be remembered about oxygen and nitrogen instead of Cromwell or Milton. Scientific people are beginning to realize that such instruction is bringing science into disrepute, and they will echo Mr. Hugh Gordon's dictum that "science had much better be left alone altogether than be taught unscientifically."

*O. B. R.*

## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### PEDAGOGY

- PARKER:** Talks on Pedagogics: an Outline of the Theory of Concentration. By Col. Francis W. Parker, Principal Cook Co. Normal School. Size  $6\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. xvi + 491. Price \$1.50. E. L. Kellogg & Co., New York and Chicago.
- TOMPKINS:** The Philosophy of Teaching. By Arnold Tompkins. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. xii + 280. Ginn & Co.
- The University of California. Catalogue 1894-95. Announcement of Courses of Graduate Instruction. Berkeley: The University Press.
- Annual Report of the Pennsylvania State College, for the Year 1893. Part I. Department for Instruction. Size 6x9 in. pp. 138. Clarence M. Busch, State Printer of Pennsylvania.
- First Annual Report of the Principal of Schools of the City of Santa Rosa, (Court House District,) to the Board of Education, for the year ending May 25, 1894. Size  $6 \times 9\frac{1}{4}$  in. Paper Cover. pp. iv + 120. Santa Rosa: Republican Printing House.

### ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

- ÆSOP:** Maynard's English Classic Series, with Explanatory Notes. No. 133 Æsop's Fables. Paper Cover. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. x + 64. Price 12 cents (Mailing Price). Maynard, Merrill & Co., New York.
- BALDWIN:** The Inflections and Syntax of the Morte D'Arthur of Sir Thomas Malory, A Study in Fifteenth-Century English. By Charles Sears Baldwin, Tutor in Rhetoric in Columbia College and Instructor in English Literature at Barnard College. Size 6x8 in. pp. vii + 156. Price \$1.50. Ginn & Co.
- BRADSHAW:** An English Anthology. From Chaucer to Tennyson. Selected and Edited by John Bradshaw, M. A., LL. D. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 509. Price \$1.50. Longmans, Green & Co., London and New York.
- BURKE:** Fairy Tales for Little Readers. By Sarah J. Burke, Principal Girls' Grammar Department, School No. 4, New York. Size  $5 \times 7$  in. pp. 133. Price 30 cents. A. Lovell & Co., New York.
- CHAUCER:** The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer Edited, from Numerous Manuscripts by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt. D., LL. D., M. A. The House of Fame: The Legend of the Good Woman, The Treatise on the Astrolabe With an Account of the Sources of the Canterbury Tales. Size 6x9 in. pp. lxxx + 504. Price \$4.00. Clarendon Press, New York. Macmillan & Co.
- FUNDENBERG:** First Lessons in Reading: Based on the Phonic-Word Method. By Elizabeth H. Fundenberg. Teacher's Edition. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 140. Price 50 cents. American Book Co.
- FUNDENBERG:** First Lessons in Reading. By Elizabeth H. Fundenberg. (For the Pupil.) Size  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7$  in. pp. 80. Price 25 cents. American Book Co.
- GOLLANCZ:** Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors. With Preface, Glossary, etc., by Israel Gollancz. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. viii + 94. Price 45 cents. Macmillan & Co.
- GOLLANCZ:** Shakespeare's Comedy of Measure for Measure. With Preface, Glossary, etc., by Israel Gollancz. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. viii + 144. Price 45 cents. Macmillan & Co.
- GOLLANCZ:** Shakespeare's Comedy of Much Ado About Nothing. With Preface, Glossary, etc., by Israel Gollancz, M. A. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. v + 134. Price 40 cents. Macmillan & Co., New York.
- GOLLANCZ:** Shakespeare's Comedy of Love's Labour's Lost. With Preface, Glossary, etc., by Israel Gollancz, M. A. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{4}$  in. pp. vii + 134. Price 40 cents. Macmillan & Co., New York.
- HENRY:** See under Modern Languages and Literatures.
- HUFFORD:** See Ruskin.
- MAXWELL:** Maxwell's English Course: First Book in English. By William H. Maxwell, M. A., Superintendent of Public Instruction, Brooklyn, N. Y. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 176. Price 40 cents. American News Company, New York.
- MAXWELL:** Introductory Lessons in English Grammar for use in Intermediate Grades. By William H. Maxwell, M. A., Superintendent of Public Instruction, Brooklyn, N. Y. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in. pp. 172. Price 40 cents. American News Company, New York.

- MEAD:** Elementary Composition and Rhetoric. By William Edward Mead, Ph. D., Professor of the English Language in Wesleyan University. Size 5x7 in. pp. 286. Price 90 cents. Leach, Shewell, & Sanborn.
- MORRIS:** Historical Tales. The Romance of Reality. By Charles Morris. American. Size 5x7½ in. pp. 319. Price 75 cents. J. B. Lippincott & Co.
- MORRIS:** Historical Tales. The Romance of Reality. By Charles Morris. French. Size 5x7½ in. pp. 322. Price 75 cents. J. B. Lippincott & Co.
- MORRIS:** Historical Tales. The Romance of Reality. By Charles Morris. German. Size 5x7½ in. pp. 344. Price 75 cents. J. B. Lippincott & Co.
- MORRIS:** Historical Tales. The Romance of Reality. By Charles Morris. English. Size 5x7½ in. pp. 336. Price 75 cents. J. B. Lippincott & Co.
- OLIVER:** A Script Primer. Easy Reading for the Youngest Children on Form and Elementary Science. By Frances E. Oliver, William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia. Size 5x7½ in. pp. 78. Price 25 cents. Lee & Shepard, Boston.
- PRATT:** Young Folk's Library of Choice Literature. Legends of Norseland. Edited by Maria L. Pratt. Size 5½x7 in. pp. 190. Educational Publishing Company, Boston.
- RIGDON:** Grammar of the English Sentence, and Introduction to Composition. By Jonathan Rigdon, A. B., Professor of Metaphysics, and Teacher of English Grammar and Criticism in Central Normal College. Author of "Outlines in Psychology", etc., etc. Size 5½x8. pp. 281. Price 85 cents. The Indiana Publishing Company, Danville, Ind.
- RUSKIN:** Essays and Letters Selected from the Writings of John Ruskin. [With Introductory Interpretations and Annotations. Edited by Mrs. Lois G. Hufford, Teacher of English Literature in the High School of Indianapolis, Ind. Size 5½x7½. pp. xxviii + 41. Ginn & Co.
- SKEAT:** See Chaucer.
- SYLE:** From Milton to Tennyson. Masterpieces of English Poetry. Edited with Notes Descriptive and Critical. By L. DuPont Syle, M. A., Instructor in English in the University of California. Size 5½x7½ in. pp. x + 161. Allyn & Bacon.
- ANCIENT LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES
- ALY:** Geschichte der römischen Litteratur. Von Friedrich Aly. Size 6x9 in. pp. 351. R. Gaertner's Verlagsbuchhandlung, H. Heyfelder, Berlin S. W., Schönebergerstr. 26.
- CRUICKSHANK:** Clarendon Press Series. Euripides Bacchae. Edited with Introduction and Notes, by A. H. Cruickshank, M. A., Fellow of New College, Oxford. Part I—Introduction and Text. Size 4½x7½ in. pp. 90 + 76. Price \$1. Macmillan & Co.
- EURIPIDES:** See Cruickshank.
- GLEASON:** School Classics: The Gate to the Anabasis. With Colloquia, Notes, and Vocabulary by Clarence W. Gleason, A. M., Master in the Roxbury Latin School. Size 4½x6½ in. pp. iv + 47. Ginn & Company, Boston, Mass.
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